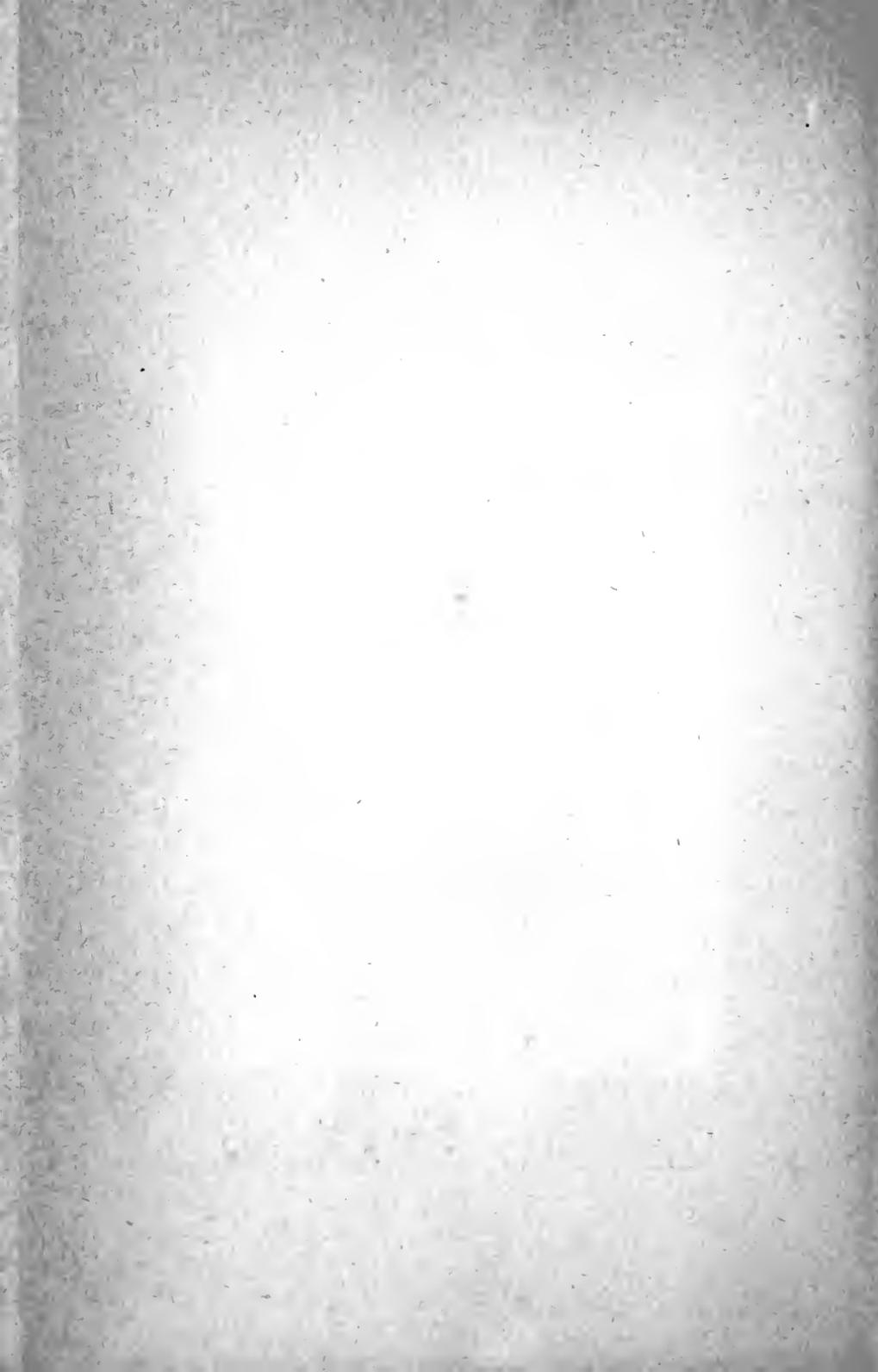


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ENGLISH ACCIDENCE AND SYNTAX

1

A HANDBOOK OF PRESENT-DAY ENGLISH

BY

E. KRUISINGA

PART II

ENGLISH ACCIDENCE AND SYNTAX

1

Our most refined theories, our most elaborate descriptions are but crude and barbarous simplifications of a reality that is, in every smallest sample, infinitely complex. ALDOUS HUXLEY.

FIFTH EDITION

P. NOORDHOFF — 1931 — GRONINGEN

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*First published in 1911. Second Edition in 1915. Third Edition in 1922.
Fourth Edition (in three volumes) in 1925. Fifth Edition in 1931.*

PREFACE TO THE THIRD EDITION

When the first edition of this book was published, I intended to add a volume treating of the phenomena in Modern English that may be called idiomatic rather than grammatical. It has been found, however, that a book on this subject, if scientific, would result in a series of isolated studies on the remnants of earlier systems of grammar. What is useful from a practical point of view may best be treated by reference to the native language of the student, as may be seen from such a book as Krüger's *Schwierigkeiten*, or my own smaller *Grammar and Idiom*.

The present volume aims at giving a scientific description of the structure of Present English. For the reason given in the preface to the preceding volume, on *English Sounds*, no historical treatment has been attempted. It seems to the author that students of language have cause to apply to themselves the warning which Professor Dicey addressed to students of law in the Preface to his *Lectures on the Law of the Constitution*, when he advised them "to consider whether the habit of looking too exclusively at the steps by which the constitution has been developed does not prevent students from paying sufficient attention to the law of the constitution as it now actually exists."

Although the book has remained substantially unchanged, its size has increased considerably. In the second edition a new chapter, on *Sentence-Structure*, was added; also some *excursus*, in which related constructions were compared. This method has been applied more frequently in the present edition,

which is further enlarged by a fuller treatment of *Prepositions*. The chapter on *Sentence-Structure* has been largely re-written, and nearly all the other chapters have been considerably altered.

In deference to the wish expressed by some reviewers I have generally given the sources of my quotations. I have not invariably been able to do so, however. In most of such cases it is quite evident that the sentence has been taken from a newspaper, although the reference has been lost; and, after all, it is of little importance, for nobody will surely want to verify these, although no doubt it may make a difference whether a passage is quoted from the *Athenaeum* or the *Daily Mail*. Other sentences, especially those illustrating spoken English, have been noted down as they were heard from English speakers; apart from other objections it would naturally be useless to give the names of the speakers. The conviction that these quotations represent good English must proceed from the confidence the reader has in the judgment of the writer, or from his own knowledge.

Even in the quotations from printed sources the learner must largely rely on the writer's knowledge of living English, and his ability to distinguish between what is literary and colloquial, serious or jocular, standard English or vulgar English. I trust, however, that no competent critic will find any quotations that are seriously misinterpreted, although differences of opinion must naturally arise when it comes to deciding whether a construction is permissible in literary English or is only allowed in familiar conversation.

So many students of Modern English grammar, both friends and strangers, have shown their interest in the work, suggesting corrections, pointing out difficulties that had been overlooked, or supplying useful quotations, that it would be impossible to mention them all by name. But they may be assured that I am grateful for their cooperation. My

indebtedness to Mr. J. H. Schutt, however, is too great to be included in this general acknowledgement. Soon after the first few sheets had been printed he undertook to read the proofs, and there is hardly a sheet but has been improved and added to by his suggestions.

Amersfoort, January 1922.

E. K.

PREFACE TO THE FIFTH EDITION

The short time that elapsed between the third and fourth editions of this work naturally prevented great changes in 1925. Since the third edition appeared, however, nine years ago, I have become more and more convinced that progress in the study of living English requires a deliberate if prudent attempt to free English syntax from views that have been introduced by a servile imitation of traditional Indo-Germanic grammar. Too many traces, no doubt, will be found in this book, but a slow evolution along the line indicated may produce more lasting progress than revolutionary changes to which students have not had time to adapt their minds.

The arrangement by which the ‘parts of speech’ are treated first can easily be shown to be illogical and arbitrary; but it has one great advantage: it prevents the reader of the chapters on word-groups in the part dealing with syntax in the narrower sense of the term from being overwhelmed by the details, so that he runs less risk of failing to see the wood for the trees. The first two volumes may thus be looked upon as introductory to the third, and if any one should choose to study the third volume first, he may consider the first two its supplement.

The new edition does not supply much new material; it rather differs from the fourth edition in the systematic attempt that is now made to interpret as well as to describe the constructions of living Standard English. For this reason comparison with other languages, whether related or not,

has been freely resorted to. As in former editions no history of syntax has been attempted: this would require a separate book, for it would deal with a different subject. The old idea that the history of language is the alpha and omega of language-study, which has never prevailed in the study of syntax as it has for a considerable time in the study of forms, and especially of sounds, may now be considered to be completely exploded.

The present book is strictly limited to Standard British English; but this type of English is no more uniform than the standard language of any other civilized community. It has been necessary, consequently, to distinguish various strata in Standard English itself; the form that has been made the centre of the treatment here attempted may be called *Common English*, as has been done by Dr. Murray in the introduction to the New English Dictionary. Variations have been noted as spoken English, familiar English, occasionally vulgar English. The peculiarities, however, that distinguish literary usage from the common Standard have seemed too important to be referred to occasionally in the midst of the constructions that are common to all varieties. For this reason the distinctly literary constructions have been reserved for a special chapter at the end of volume 2. Occasionally a detail of literary English has been treated in the chapters on common English, and it need hardly be observed that the separation of the two is sometimes necessarily arbitrary. For of literary English it may be said, with more truth than of the literary forms of the standard language in some European communities, that it is the natural growth of a form of language in accordance with its peculiar needs, without much interference by arbitrary theorists. The result has been that literary English is a perfectly natural form of English, without any of the affectations that disfigure some other literary languages. In the chapter on literary English I have naturally

been obliged to distinguish now and then between the language of prose and that of poetry, and in the latter between what is common in poetry and what may truly be called archaic.

As to the quotations some may think there are too many. Of course, the beginner will be wise in studying one or two examples only, for fear of being overwhelmed by them¹⁾. But the advanced reader who consults, rather than reads, this book, will welcome the quotations, I hope. It will usually be found that the sentences quoted, though illustrating the same phenomenon, differ in more or less important details, and as the progress of our knowledge of the structure of living English requires a number of detailed studies of single constructions, as well as of the syntax as a whole of individual persons, the quotations here offered may serve as a starting-point for such studies. The discovery of a batch of old notes has enabled me to supply a number of references that I had believed to be lost; the result is that practically all the sentences quoted can be verified, with the exception of a small number that have been collected from conversations with educated speakers.

In conclusion I have a pleasant duty to perform: to thank the numerous students of English, both in this country and abroad, who have contributed suggestions, corrections, and additional quotations. Among them I can only mention a few by name: my old friend, the phonetician Eijkman, who contributed a great number of quotations as well as criticism in the proof stage of the work; Professor van der Gaaf, who wrote an article of sixteen pages in *Englische Studien*, which has almost bodily been transferred to this book; Professor Grattan, who sent me a long letter, really an article in manuscript, with notes on the fourth edition of the book;

1) For the convenience of these readers less important details have been printed in a slightly smaller type.

and finally the many reviewers who have given more praise to the book than I think it deserves, because I know too well how much remains to be done. The bibliography contains a list of those books only that have been found directly useful in the writing of this work. A full list of studies on English grammar can easily be found elsewhere. One source of help remains to be mentioned: the students of the *School voor Taal- en Letterkunde* who attended the lectures on the Making of Modern English Syntax and the lessons on the practical study of living English. Their criticism, usually in the form of questions, has been of real use, and their interest in the subject has been a great encouragement.

The Hague, 29 May 1931.

E. K.

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PHONETIC SYMBOLS

ENGLISH VOWELS AND DIPHTHONGS

i in bit	<i>beat</i>	u in fud	<i>food</i>	ai in waif	<i>wife</i>
i in { nit	<i>knit</i>	u in { gud	<i>good</i>	au in haus	<i>house</i>
{ hæprɪ	<i>happy</i>	vælju	<i>value</i>	ɔɪ in boɪ	<i>boy</i>
e in bred	<i>bread</i>	ʌ in nat	<i>nut</i>	eɪ in neɪm	<i>name</i>
æ in mæt	<i>mat</i>	ɒ in hot	<i>hot</i>	oʊ in roud	<i>road</i>
ə in bəd	<i>bird</i>	ɔ in lo	<i>law</i>	ɪə in hiə(r)	<i>hear</i>
a in fam	<i>farm</i>	ə in { entə(r)	<i>enter</i>	ɛə in kɛə(r)	<i>care</i>
		əgou	<i>ago</i>	ʊə in puə(r)	<i>poor</i>
				əə in drəə(r)	<i>drawer</i>

VOWELLIKE

ŋ in sŋŋ *song*

CONSONANTS

f in feɪv	<i>shave</i>	p in þot	<i>thought</i>
ʒ in pleʒə(r)	<i>pleasure</i>	ð in ðouz	<i>those</i>

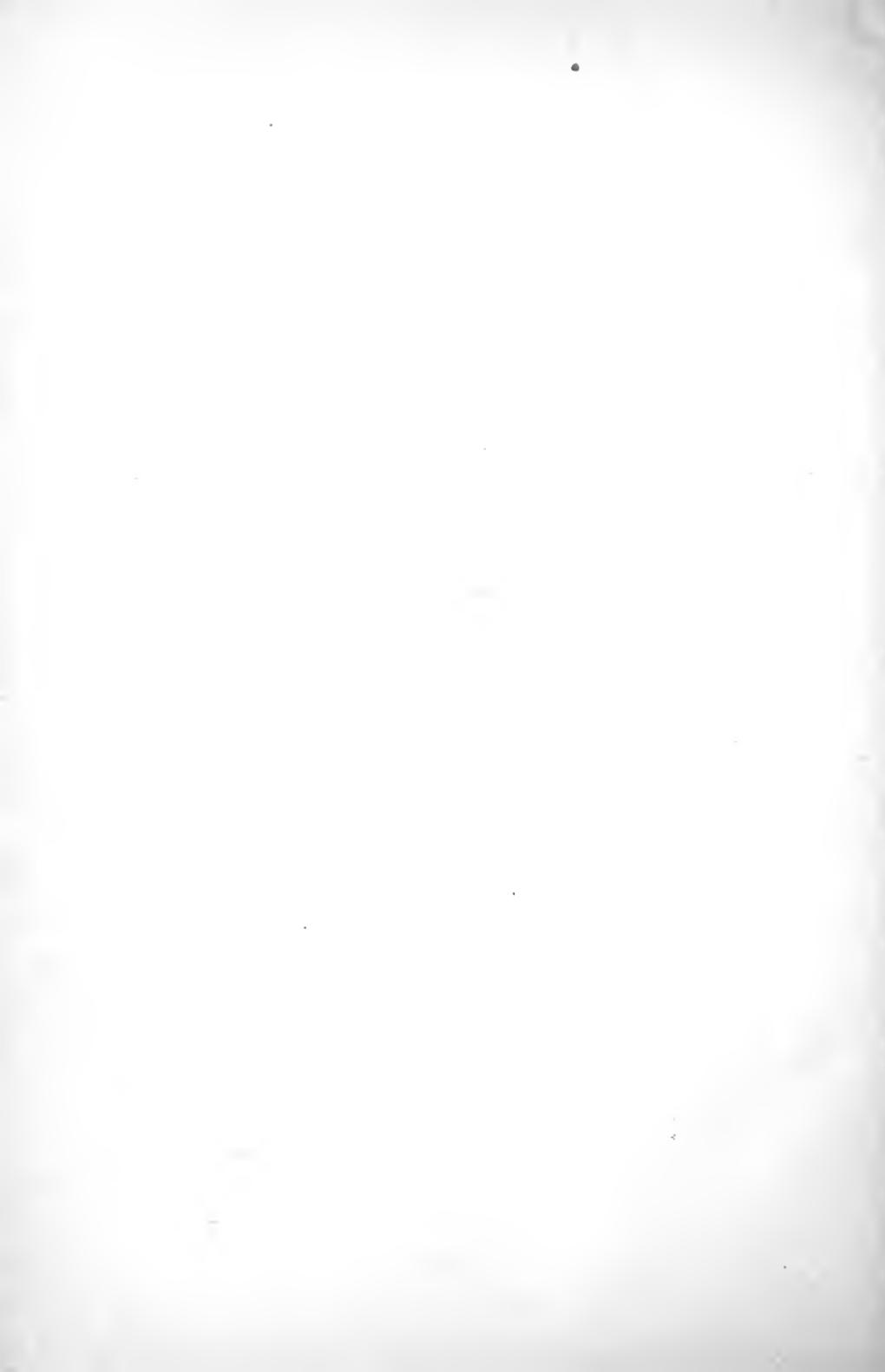
CORRIGENDA

- P. 26, l. 1 fr. top, change *cierk* into *clerk*.
 P. 27, l. 13 " " , " 27 into 29.
 P. 39, l. 21 " " , " *topies* into *topics*.
 P. 40, note " " , " 56 into 66.
 P. 55, note, l. 1, " " *as* into *us*.
 P. 59, cancel note.
 P. 63, cancel last line.
 P. 64, cancel ll. 1, 2 & 3.
 P. 77, l. 9 fr. bottom,¹⁾ " " *bach* into *back*.
 P. 79, l. 10 " " , " *neither .. nor* into *either .. or*.
 P. 97, l. 3 " " , " *adjunets* into *adjuncts*.
 P. 98, note 1, l. 2, " " *doubts* into *no doubt*.
 P. 106, l. 14 fr. bottom, " " 121 *a* into 121 *c*.
 P. 133, l. 5 " top, " " *solu ion* into *solution*.
 P. 133, l. 21 " " , " *leading clause*, into *leading clause*; but see 164 *b*.
 P. 136, l. 15 " " , " 21*th* into 21*st*.
 P. 138, l. 8 " " , " *states a merely suppositional*
 into contains a recapitulation
 of a.
 P. 155, l. 6 " bottom, " " *couln't* into *couldn't*.
 P. 157, cancel ll. 4, 5 & 6.
 P. 196, l. 15 fr. bottom, " " *were* into *mere*.
 P. 210, l. 9 " top, " " *enumerated, to be* into *enumerated to be*.
 P. 233, l. 1, " " *form* into *forms*.
 P. 247, l. 8 fr. bottom, " " *some thing* into *something*.
 P. 254, l. 13 " top, " " 361 into 362.
 P. 268, note, l. 3, " " *all* into *both*.
 P. 347, l. 10 fr. top, " " *it it* into *it is*.
 P. 377, last line, " " *folowing* into *following*.
 P. 404, l. 6 fr. top, " " *of child* into *of a child*.
 P. 406, l. 2 " " , " *undifferent* into *indifferent*.
 P. 415, § 607. The last quotation is from the Academy;
 see § 94.
 P. 418, note, l. 1, after *him* add *of*.
 P. 451. The first quotation of 671 is from Temple Thurston,
 The Antagonists.
 P. 457, l. 21 fr. top, change 648 into 658.
 P. 496, note, l. 2, " 737 *b* into 738 *b*.
 P. 498, l. 1, " *firs* into *first*.
-

1) The notes are included in the line-numbering; the running titles are not.

THE PARTS OF SPEECH

1



VERBS

F O R M S

1. An English verb generally has one *stem*, used in various functions, and three forms with suffixes that are more or less clearly inflectional. These suffixes are:

- (1) [ɪd, d, t]; (2) [ɪŋ]; (3) [ɪz, z, s].

Two of these suffixes vary according to the phonetic character of the final sound of the verb stem.

2. The first of the suffixes just mentioned is:

- (1) [ɪd] when the stem ends in [d, t]:

[end, endɪd; weɪt, weɪtɪd] *end, ended; wait, waited.*

- (2) [d] when the stem ends in a voiced sound (not *d*):

[kəl, kəld; bæg, bægd; stei, steid; entə, entəd]
call, called; bag, bagged; stay, stayed; enter, entered.

- (3) [t] when the stem ends in a breathed sound (not *t*):

[stɒp, stɒpt] *stop, stopped.*

1. On the phonetic changes words undergo when final [d] is added, see *English Sounds on Glides* (chapters 2 and 4).

2. On the loss of final consonants of the stem, as in [rænt, ast] *ranked, asked*, see *English Sounds on Assimilation in familiar English* (ch. 4).

3. Two groups of verbs traditionally have a form in *-t* although their stem ends in a voiced consonant. The first

group ends in a vowel-like, the second in *-d* preceded by a vowel-like (including the vocalized *r*).

(1) a.	dwell	dwelt	b.	burn	burnt
	smell	smelt		learn	learnt
	spell	spelt		pen	pent 'to enclose'
	spill	spilt			
	spoil	spoilt			

All these verbs are also found with the regular spellings (*burned*, etc.). In some (perhaps in all) cases the pronunciation is also regular, viz. [-d]; [d] is certainly used in the case of *smell*, *spell*, *spill*; *burn*, *learn* and *pen*.

But these pronunciations are generally either pedantic attempts to follow the spelling, or they are archaic. Thus we have [spoild) spoiled when the verb is used in its biblical sense of *to rob*.

To *pen*, as a converted noun meaning 'to write', is always regular; see 6. The form *penned* 'enclosed' is also pronounced [pend], perhaps as a converted noun. When used as an adjective it is most frequently [pent].

She has spoilt her children; she never refused them anything.

The dress is quite spoilt; I shall never be able to get the stain out.

But this is a people robbed and spoiled.

Isaiah 42, 22.

Mr. S. has penned a biting satire on the present economic system. *Athenaeum*, 14/9, 12.

Shortly before sunset the gorge echoed with liquid tinklings, and an aged goatherd appeared with his flock of brown sheep and tawny goats, which with the help of a wild-eyed boy he penned in another big cave on the side opposite.

Compton Mackenzie, Sylvia and Michael p. 302.

What bliss within this narrow den is pent.

Faust (translated by Taylor).

I must have a walk, I can't bear being pent up in a room all day.

With a sort of pity for those penned in the crowded room.
Benson, *Thread of Gold* p. 39.

(2) a. [bild] build [bilt] built

gild	gilt
bend	bent
blend	blent 'to mix'
lend	lent
rend	rent
send	sent
spend	spent

b. gird girt

Two of these, *bend* and *gild*, often have a form [bendid, gildid] *bended*, *gilded*, chiefly in figurative or poetic use (*on his bended knee*, *gilded spurs*, also *The Gilded Chamber*, i.e. the House of Lords). In poetry we also find *builded*.

The regular form *blended* is more usual than *blent*.

I've builded a throne for my queen. Gibson.

Our teas are pure and well-blended.

A common persecution soon blended the nonconformists into one.

Her spirit, that had seemed to be caught up into some realm of ecstasy where pain was inextricably blent with joy, sank back into the material bondage.

It should be considered that the two forms of each of these verbs differ in more than the final consonant: the length of vowel and vowel-like varies according to the general laws of quantity in English; see *English Sounds*.

4. A regular verb can also take the suffix [-ɪŋ] -ing: [kʌmɪŋ, sɪŋ] *coming, seeing*.

1. Words in syllabic *l*, such as *fiddle*, either retain this, or have non-syllabic *l*; see *English Sounds*.
2. Words written with final *-r* always have [-ər] before [ɪŋ]; [entər, entərɪŋ]. See 2.

5. The third of the suffixes mentioned in 1 is:

- (1) [ɪz] when the stem ends in a sibilant:
[hi wiʃɪz, reɪdʒɪz] *he wishes, rages.*
- (2) [z] when the stem ends in a voiced sound (not a sibilant):
[hi kɔlz, steɪz, entəz] *he calls, stays, enters.*
- (3) [s] when the stem ends in a breathed sound (not a sibilant):
[hi houps] *he hopes.*

On the phonetic changes words undergo when [z] is added, see *English Sounds*, on *Glides* (ch. 2 and 4).

Irregular Verbs

6. A number of verbs take the suffixes [ɪz, z, s] and [ɪŋ] but express the functions of the suffix [ɪd, d, t]:

- (1) by means of one form with vowel-change in the stem, as in *bind, bound.*
- (2) by means of two forms with vowel-change, each with its own syntactic function and distinguished as the *preterite* and the *participle*, as in *break, broke, broken*, or *drink, drank, drunk*. In many cases the participle has the suffix [-(ə)n].
- (3) by using the stem, as in *set.*

All the irregular verbs are traditional in living English so that they are slowly disappearing. This explains why in many cases regular forms exist by the side of the traditional ones. Also why verbs converted from nouns, even when the noun is identical in form with an irregular verb, take the regular suffix, as in *pen* (p. 4) and *shine* (p. 7).

In the lists of verbs in the following sections compound verbs are not mentioned with the exception of a few compounds that differ so much in meaning from the simple verb that the connection is broken, as in *forget*.

7. The verbs with a single vowel-alternation are the following, arranged according to their vowels:

(1) [aɪ]	[aʊ]
bind	bound
find	found
grind	ground
wind	wound

(2) [aɪ]	[v]
shine	shone

To shine ‘to polish’, as a converted noun, is regular (see 6): *You have shined them beautifully* (*viz.* *my boots*).

(3) [aɪ]	[ɔ]
fight	fought

(4) [aɪ]	[ʌ]
strike	struck

(5) [æ]	[ʌ]
hang	hung

To hang ‘to execute by hanging’ generally takes *-d*: *hanged*.

(6) [ɪ]	[æ]
sit	sæt
spit	spæt

(7) [ɪ]	[ʌ]
dig	dug
stick	stuck
cling	clung
fling	flung
sling	slung
slink	slunk
sting	stung
string	strung
swing	swung

wring	wrung
win	won

To dig is also regular.

(8) [i]	[e]
bleed	bled
feed	fed
lead	led
meet	met
[rid] read	[red] read
speed	sped

The preterite *pled* (from *to plead*), found in Punch (Sept. 24, 1913 p. 371/1), is jocular. Ellinger, in his review (Beiblatt zur Anglia, 35 p. 372) quotes a passage from *The Literary Digest* that shows that *pled* is not necessarily jocular, but rather colloquial, or vulgar.

(9) [ou]	[e]
hold	held
behold	beheld
(10) [u]	[o]
shoot	shot

8. The following verbs have distinct forms for the preterite and the participle, each with their own vowel, so that the verbal system contains three vowels:

(1) [ai]	[ou]	[i]
drive	drove	driven
ride	rode	ridden
(a)rise	(a)rose	(a)risen
smite]	smote	smitten
stride	strode	stridden
strive	strove	striven
thrive	throve	thriven
write	wrote	written

The preterite is also *strided* (see 6), *thrived*.

Note also the ironic phrase *English as she is wrote*.

(2) [aɪ]	[u]	[ou]
fly ¹⁾	flew	flown 'to move through the air with wings'
(3) [i]	[æ]	[ʌ]
begin	began	begun
drink	drank	drunk
ring	rang	rung
shrink	shrank	shrunk
sing	sang	sung
sink	sank	sunk
spin	span	spun
spring	sprang	sprung
stink	stank	stunk
swim	swam	swum

All these verbs also occur with [ʌ] in the preterite,
e. g. *drunk*, *rung*, etc.

His wife span for domestic uses.

Dobbs, Education p. 17.

9. A larger number of verbs with distinct forms for the preterite and the participle have two vowels only, the participle sharing its vowel either with the preterite (*a*), or with the stem (*b*).

<i>a.</i> (1) [aɪ]	[eɪ]	[eɪ]
lie	lay	lain
(2) [aɪ]	[i]	[i]
bite	bit	bitten
light	lit	lit 'to illuminate'
chide	chid	chidden 'to scold'
hide	hid	hidden
slide	slid	slidden

The participle *bit* occurs in the phrase *the biter bit*; the participles *chid*, *hid*, *slid*, are also found. *Slid* is

1) *To fly 'run away'* has *fled* for its preterite and participle; see 11, 1

perhaps more usual than *slidden*. *Chide* is also inflected regularly; the verb *to alight* is usually regular: *alighted*; less often the simple verb, which is probably sometimes looked on as a converted noun (6).

The rich autumn foliage was lighted by the low sun.
Shorthouse, Inglesant ch. 4, p. 52.

One lamp was lighted.
Hichens, Ambition ch. 13 p. 140.

(The bird) rose again, and after several evolutions lit
in the march away from the water.

Times W. 19/1, 17.

(3)	[e]	[ə]	[ɒ]
	get	got	got
	forget	forgot	forgotten
	tread	trod	trodden

(4)	[eɪ]	[ou]	[ou]
	break	broke	broken

(5)	[ɛə]	[ɔə]	[ɔ]
	bear	bore	borne

Note to be born: *He was born in 1875.*

forbear	forbore	forborne
swear	swore	sworn
tear	tore	torn
wear	wore	worn

(6)	[i]	[ou]	[ou]
	freeze	froze	frozen
	heave	hove	hove
	(be)speak	(be)spoke	(be)spoken
	steal	stole	stolen
	weave	wove	woven

Both *heave* and *weave* also have the regular form *heaved*, *weaved*.

The form *hove* is only used in the nautical sense of the word.

He heaved a deep sigh.

The body was hove overboard.

The anchor was hove up for good.

The ship hove in sight.

The ship was hove to (i. e. was brought to a standstill by setting the sails so as to counteract one another).

(7) [u]	[ou]	[ou]
choose	chose	chosen

b. (1) [eɪ]	[u]	[eɪ]
forsake	forsook	forsaken
take	took	taken

Also *mistake, overtake*.

(2) [eɪ]	[u]	[eɪ]
slay	slew	slain

(3) [ɪ]	[æ]	[ɪ]
bid	[bæd]	bade bidden

Also *forbid forbade forbidden*.

In spoken English *bid* is only used in the sense of 'to bid at an auction, to bid for votes.' In these meanings it is generally invariable (see 15), but Kirkpatrick (*Handbook*) gives an example: *He bade for the picture at an auction*.

In literary English it means 'to order', with the preterite [bæd] *bade*, also *bad*, and the participle *bidden*; the stem *bid* is also found as a participle.

Custom bade him blow his horn.

The two Earls were bidden to be diligent.

The proposed expedition bade fair to be successful.

A haggard man bid them depart.

Eden Phillpotts, Eng. Rev. Oct. 13, p. 344.

Charlie did as he was bid.

Trollope, Three Clerks p. 239.

(4) [ɪ]	[eɪ]	[ɪ]
give	gave	given

Also *forgive*.

(5) [i]	[e]	[i]
eat	[et] ate, eat	eaten

The preterites [eit, it] *ate, eat* are less usual.

(6) [i]	[ɔ]	[i]
see	saw	seen

(7) [ɔ]	[e]	[ɔ]
fall	fell	fallen

(8) [ɔ]	[u]	[ɔ]
draw	drew	drawn

Also *withdraw*.

(9) [ou]	[u]	[ou]
blow	blew	blown
grow	grew	grown
know	knew	known
throw	threw	thrown

(10) [ʌ]	[æ]	[ʌ]
run	ran	run

(11) [ʌ]	[eɪ]	[ʌ]
come	came	come

Also *become*.

10. Some verbs have forms for the preterite and participle partly with the regular consonantal suffix, partly with vowel-change. We call them *mixed*.

The following verbs have a vocalic preterite and a consonantal participle.

crow crew crowed

The verb *to crow* usually has a preterite *crowed* when it means 'to utter the cry of a cock', but *crew* is also used, in literary English. With reference to persons (children), or in a figurative sense 'to exult over', it is always *crowed*.

The black-cock deem'd it day, and crew.

The Cock crow'd lustier late and early.

The baby laughed and crowed the whole time.

I am not going to be crowed over by you.

stave stove staved

The participle is also *stove*, as a nautical term.

This ship was too much damaged; it had to be staved ('broken up'). See 6 on converted nouns.

The fore compartment is stove in (after a collision of two ships).

(a)wake (a)woke (a)waked

The verb *to wake* also has the participles *waked* and *woken*. There is also a participle *awoke*.

Mr. Chamberlain has waked up the country. Pilot.

In the first place Mr. Pollard considers that Mr. C. has woken us up. Pilot.

Lately he had always woken up when she came to bed.
Sinister Street p. 40.

11. Some mixed verbs have forms with vowel-change and a regular consonantal ending at the same time:

(1) [aɪ]	[e]
fly	fled 'to run away'

In spoken English the verb is not very common, *to run away* being generally used.

(2) [e]	[ou]
sell	sold
tell	told

(3) [eɪ]	[e]
say	[sed] said

Note that we have the same vowel alternation before the suffix -z: [sez] *says*.

The verb *to gainsay* has the preterite and participle [geɪn'seɪd] as well as [geɪn'sed] *gainsaid*. See also 23, 6.

(4) [i]	[e]
creep	crept
keep	kept
leap	[lept] leapt, leaped; also [lipt] leaped,
sleep	slept [perhaps as a converted noun (6)].

	sweep	swept
	weep	wept
(5)	[ɪə]	[ə]
	hear	heard
(6)	[ʊ]	[ɒ]
	shoe	shod; also [ʃud] shoed, according to 6 (converted nouns).

12. The following verbs show vowel-change and irregular consonantal endings.

(1)	[aɪ]	[ɔ]
	buy	bought
(2)	[æ]	[ɔ]
	catch	caught
(3)	[ɪ]	[ɔ]
	bring	brought
	think	thought
(4)	[i]	[e]
	deal	dealt
	dream	[dremt] dreamt or dreamed
	feel	felt
	lean	[lent] leant or leaned
	kneel	knelt
	leave	left
	mean	meant

There are also regular preterites and participles of *dream*, *kneel*, and *lean*: [drimd, nild, lind] *dreamed*, *kneeled*, *leaned*; these forms are little used (see note to 3, 1).

(5)	[i]	[ɔ]
	seek	sought
	beseech	besought
	teach	taught
(6)	[ʊ]	[ɒ]
	[luz] lose	[lɒst] lost

13. Some verbs have a regular consonantal preterite, and a participle with the ending *-n*, accompanied by vowel-change (*a*) or not (*b*).

<i>a.</i>	shear	sheared	shorn
<i>b.</i>	hew	hewed	hewn
	mow	mowed	mown
	saw	sawed	sawn
	[sou] sew	[soud] sewed	[soun] sewn
	show	Showed	shown
	sow	sowed	sown
	[stru] strew	[strud] strewed	[strun] strewn

In these verbs the regular *hewed*, *mowed*, etc. are also used as participles, chiefly (or exclusively) in predicative use.

14. One verb has the stem for the function of the preterite and a form with [-n] for the participle:

beat beat beaten

The stem *beat* [bit] is occasionally used as a participle, chiefly in the sense 'to conquer in battle', and as an ordinary adjective in the phrase *dead-beat* 'utterly exhausted'.

Late in the afternoon they returned home, dead-beat.
Galsworthy, Frelands ch. 28 p. 351.

15. The third group of irregular verbs contains such as use the stem in the functions of the form with [ɪd], i.e. of the preterite and participle. Although they take the suffixes *-s* and *-ing* it is perhaps convenient to retain the traditional term: *invariable verbs*.

All these verbs end in *-d* and *-t*, and might also be looked upon as exceptions to the rules for the consonantal suffix.

shed	rid	hit	cut	cast	burst
shred	let	slit	shut	cost	hurt
spread	set	split	put	thrust	

On *bid* see 9 b, 3; *forecast*, as a converted noun, often has *-ed*; *broadcast* regularly.

16. Some verbs in *-t* are occasionally found unchanged when used as a preterite or participle, although they generally take [ɪd].

Thus are we knit by more than earthly ties.

Frankau, One of Us, p. 4.

He bent forward, wet his fingers, picked up the coal and threw it back into the fire.

Bennett, Old W. Tale IV ch. 2, § 2, p. 464.

17. Two irregular verbs may be mentioned separately:

make	made
stand	[stud] stood

Anomalous Verbs 18. A number of verbs are irregular apart from the forms used for the preterite and participle. They have irregularities in the form with [ɪz, z, s], or use the stem instead. Owing to their syntactic functions many have special strong-stressed and weak-stressed forms.

They also have special forms with the weak-stressed adverb *not* joined to them directly, without the verb *to do*.

The forms with the adverb [nɒt] pronounced fully are used when the auxiliary is repeated and *not* has a strong stress to contradict a preceding statement:

"I am ready." — "You are not ready."

After a prolonged absence, she returns, and informs us she was mistaken: Mr. Gadbrooke is *not* at home.

Sweet, Spoken English p. 78.

This applies equally to all the verbs of this group. See below, on *to do*.

19. The anomalous verbs consist of three groups:

- (1) those that have a complete verbal system: *have*, *do*.
- (2) those that are exclusively used as verbal predicates, and have a preterite only beside the stem, no

participle and no form with the suffix [-iz, z, s], nor [ɪŋ]: *can, may, shall, will.*

- (3) those that have a single predicative form: *must, need, ought, used.*

20. The verb *to have* loses its final consonant before the suffixes [z, d]; it also has special forms with *not*, and in weak-stressed use. In other respects its forms are regular:

Stem:	[hæv; əv, v] <i>have</i>
Stem with [z]:	[hæz; əz, z, s] <i>has</i>
Negative forms:	[hævnt] <i>have not</i> [hæznt] <i>has not</i>
Preterite:	[hæd; d] <i>had</i>
Negative form:	[hædnt] <i>had not</i>
Ing:	[hævin̩] <i>having</i>

21. The weak forms [əz, z, s; d] *has, had* are only used when *to have* is an enclitic auxiliary without *not*: *He has told everything. He's got a lot of money. I'd forgotten all about it.*

But [hæz, hæd], because enclitic words follow, in *He has not told us; He has a lot of money; I had to pay the money back;* and in questions: *Has he told everything?*

22. The verb *to do*, like *to have*, has a complete verbal system but its forms are quite irregular.

Stem:	[du] <i>do</i>
Stem with [z]:	[dʌz] <i>does</i>
Negative forms:	[dount] <i>do not, don't</i> [dʌznt] <i>does not, doesn't</i>
Preterite:	[dɪd] <i>did</i>
Negative form:	[dɪdnt] <i>did not, didn't</i>

Part.: [dʌn] *done*
 Ing: [duɪŋ] *doing*
 In familiar English also *don't* for *doesn't*.

23. The following verbs have no complete verbal system but only two forms, a stem and a preterite, or one form only.

(1) *can*.

Stem: [kæn, kən] *can*; negative: [kənt] *cannot, can't*.
 Preterite: [kud, kəd] *could*; negative: [kudnt] *could not, couldn't*.

(2) *may*.

Stem: [meɪ] *may*; negative: [meɪnt] *may not, mayn't*.
 Preterite: [maɪt] *might*; negative: [maɪtn̩t] *might not, mightn't*.

(3) *shall*.

Stem: [ʃæl, ʃl] *shall*; negative [ʃənt] *shall not, shan't*.
 Preterite: [ʃud, ʃəd] *should*; negative: [ʃudnt] *should not, shouldn't*.

(4) *will*.

Stem: [wɪl, ɪ] *will*; negative: [wount] *will not, won't*.
 Preterite: [wud, wəd, əd] *would*; negative [wudnt] *would not, wouldn't*.

(5) *must, ought*.

Must and *ought* have one form only.
 Note [mʌstn̩t, mʌsn̩t; ɔtn̩t] *must not, mustn't; ought not, oughtn't*.

(6) *dare, need*.

In spoken English *dare* and *need*, when members of a verbal group, have one form only (*he need not ask*). As independent verbs they are regular:
*Let him do it if he dares*¹).

1) Compare *daredn't* and *daren't*, both [dəənt]; and [mʌsn̩t] *mustn't*.

In combination with *say* the verb forms a semi-compound, chiefly in the first person of the present tense: *I dare say*, also written in one word *Idaresay*. In reported speech we find *he dares say*; *he dared say* or *he dared to say*.

Philip dared say it was a little . . .

Snaith, Principal Girl p. 169.

He dared say a good deal would depend upon its success.

Times W. 2/1, 14.

(7) *used*.

[just] has the function of a preterite, generally with *to* and a stem immediately after it. The negative form is *usedn't*, often written *usen't*¹⁾ and generally pronounced [jusnt], but also *did not use*; as a participle *used* is rare.

Sometimes he used to tell us of his expeditions through the woods and fields round his home.

Sweet, Spoken English p. 50.

People did not use to eat so much meat as they do now.

id. Element. no. 15 p. 66.

But Stella did not begin to speak, as she was used, of her determination to have her own way in spite of everybody.

Sinister Street p. 816.

24. Besides the verbs with irregular participles, and the anomalous verbs, English has a small number of verbs that do not form a complete system except by combining different verbs. Such *suppletive* systems are those of *to go* and *to be*.

Both these verbs have forms with the suffixes [(-i)z] and [-m], but there are other verbs in the functions of the verbal [id].

25. The system of *to go* is completed by means of

1) See note on page 18.

the preterite of an old verb *to wend*, now completely forgotten:

go went gone

The 'verb' *to be* is a combination of a number of distinct verbs. It differs from all other verbs in English by having special forms, differing from the stem, for the various persons of the present tense, and a double form for the preterite, partly according to person and number, partly according to its syntactic function. The present tense also forms special phonetic combinations with the personal pronouns. Like the anomalous verbs it also forms special groups with weak-stressed *not*.

The forms may be enumerated as follows:

Present:	[æm] (<i>I</i>) <i>am</i>
	[ɑ(r)] (<i>you, we, they</i>) <i>are</i>
	[iz] (<i>he, she, it</i>) <i>is</i>
Shortened forms:	[aɪm]
	[juə(r), wiə(r), ʌeə(r)]
	[hiz, fiz, its]
Negative forms:	[aɪm nɒt] <i>I am not</i>
	[ənt] (<i>we, you, they</i>) <i>are not, aren't</i>
	[ɪznt] (<i>he, she, it</i>) <i>is not, isn't</i>

Note that in the negative form of the *first* person singular *not* has its strong vowel, whereas in all the other persons it is [nɒt]. Hence in questions we also find *not* [nɒt] after *I*, whereas in all other persons it is joined on to the verbal form: [æm aɪ nɒt] *am I not?*, but [ənt wi] *aren't we?*, etc., and [ɪznt hi] *isn't he?*, etc.

In natural spoken English, however, the form [ənt] is used in the first person singular in questions: [aɪm rait, ənt aɪ?] *I am right, aren't I? "Aren't I to see Sylvia?" Michael asked, laughing* (Sinister Street p. 1088). — "You overlook the fact, Betty, that you are not in a position to

'state terms'." "*Aren't I?*" (Chapin, New Morality, in Brit. Pl. p. 557).

In very colloquial (some would say: vulgar) English the negative form for all persons is [eint] *ain't*.¹⁾

Preterites: [wəz, wəz] *was*

[wə(r), wə(r)] *were*²⁾

Negative forms: [wəznt] *was not, wasn't*

[wənt] *were not, weren't*

Stem: [bi] *be*

Part: [bin, bɪn] *been*

Ing: [biŋ] *being*

26. It would be defensible to include other verbal systems in the suppletive group. Thus there is little in common between *fly* and *fled*; between *fly, flew* and *flown*. It would also be reasonable to include such verbs as *stand*, and *can, may, shall, will*. But *stood* and the preterites to these auxiliaries may perhaps more conveniently be considered as elements of a formally single verbal system: as in the case of *fly, fled* the initial consonant or consonant-group of each pair is identical, and all of them have a verbal [id] (or a preterite) in *-d*.

USE OF THE FORMS

27. It has been shown in the preceding sections that an English verb generally has three forms besides the stem. The uses of each of these forms will now be treated.

1) Both [ant] and [eint] are to be considered the result of assimilation of *are not, is not*, like [kant] of *cannot*; the spelling *aren't* with an *r* is purely phonetic here, the *r* serving exclusively to express the character of the preceding vowel.

2) Instead of [wə(r)] there is a less common form [wəə(r)]; see Montgomery, *Types* p. 28 f.

Verbal [ɪd]

28. The verbal [ɪd] corresponds to a form with vowel-change in a number of irregular verbs; some of these have two forms corresponding to the verbal [ɪd] according to their syntactic functions (7–14). Other verbs again use the stem in the same functions as the verbal [ɪd] of regular verbs (15 f.).

The verbal [ɪd] and the corresponding forms of irregular verbs serve:

- (1) as a *preterite*, when used as the leading part of the predicate.
- (2) as a *participle*, when not used as the leading part of the predicate.

The terms *preterite* and *participle* are traditional ones; they are useful only as long as they are taken in the sense defined above without any regard to their etymological origin.

Preterite

29. The term preterite includes two entirely unrelated functions of the verbal [ɪd]:

- (1) as a past tense; (2) as a modal form.

The verb *to be* is the only one that distinguishes the two functions formally: as a past tense and as a preterite of modesty *was* is the exclusive form for the first persons of the singular, otherwise *were*; as an irrealis, *were* can be used in all cases, but *was* is an alternative form in the first and third persons singular, especially in colloquial English.

Past Tense 30. The verb is the only part of speech that has a form one of whose functions it is to express distinctions of time. Other parts of speech may be connected in thought with a special time, e. g. nouns

expressing an action; thus *the conquest of Ireland* may refer to present, past, or future time. The time may be specially mentioned: *Ireland in ancient times; English pronunciation in the 16th century*. But nouns have no forms to express distinctions of time.

The verbal [id] when used predicatively to express distinctions of time is called the *past tense*.

31. A past action, occurrence, or state is expressed by the past tense when the speaker considers the time as completely separated from the present: the past tense is *narrative* in this case¹⁾.

On Wednesday five German aeroplanes were destroyed, and three driven down damaged. Three of our machines are missing. Times W. 2/2, 17.

Three hundred years ago the Pilgrim Fathers sailed for America in the Mayflower. Times Ed. S. 9/9, 20.

"But *your* house is not like that." — "No, my house is all right; but it is the only dry house in the whole country round. I had it built on purpose."

Sweet, Elementarbuch.

The Marquis lived for the best part of the year at Fane Abbey; occasionally, say for a week or two in the height of the season, he went up to town and stayed at his large home in Park Lane. Garvice, Staunch.

The following official statement describing the cause and course of the Tsarewitch's illness was issued late to-night. Times W.

In my first chapter I dealt mainly with those political institutions of the earliest times, institutions common to our whole race, institutions which still live and are untouched among some small primitive communities of our race, out of which the still living Constitution of England *grew*. Freeman, Growth.

[In the last sentence the preterite *grew* is used because the writer thinks of the process that led to the constitution

1) On the past tense of concord, see vol. 3.

as it is now, not of the result of the process. That such is the explanation of the preterite is shown by the sentences following immediately:

It is now my business, as the second part of my subject, to trace the steps by which that Constitution grew out of a political state with which at first sight it seems to have so little in common. My chief point is that it did thus, in the strictest sense, grow out of that state. Our English Constitution was never made, in the sense in which the Constitutions of many other countries have been made].

32. The past tense when expressing something that was often repeated in the past, is descriptive rather than narrative. This *iterative* use is not in any formal way distinguished from the narrative use, and it is the situation only that makes the meaning clear.

She *spent* the intervals of the London season in ragged schools and workhouses. When she *went* abroad with her family, she *used* her spare time so well that there was hardly a great hospital in Europe with which she was not acquainted. Lytton Strachey, Vict., p. 119.

When Farmer Oak *smiled*, the corners of his mouth *spread* till they were within an unimportant distance of his ears; ... Hardy, Madding Crowd, ch. I.

33. The narrative past tense is sometimes used to contrast past and present time.

"Oh, you *did* give me a turn," she exclaimed.

"I *thought*¹⁾ it was early for the milkman."

Mackenzie, Sylvia p. 58 f.

A. I am sorry Mr. C. is not in. — B. Oh, I only *called* to see how he was.

A. "Are you going to L. to-night?" — B. 'Why?' — A. "Oh, I *wondered*."

1) In 'thought' the pitch of the voice rises suddenly and there is a slight pause after it; it is then slightly lowered and rises to its original pitch at the end. The italics are in the original text.

On the following advertisement in the Times:

Important Notice. M. L. supplies all classes of domestic servants with good characters

Punch 30/10, 12 comments:

We wondered where some of them got their good characters from.

34. We have another special case of the narrative past tense when it is used to express hesitation by making the idea expressed more remote. Thus we say, *I thought he was to lecture next week*, when something has occurred to make us doubt the correctness of the expectation.

The past tense is similarly used if a writer wishes to dissociate himself from stating a fact.

(Alexander) captured the cities of Susa and Persepolis — capitals and treasure-cities of the Persian king. One hundred and twenty thousand talents *were* said to have been obtained from the latter city.

Goodspeed, History, p. 214.

35. The past tense of remoteness leads by imperceptible stages to the case when the idea of past time is completely absent. When we say: *I called to ask you, if you would join us*, the preterite would seem to be more polite or modest; it suggests: that was my idea when I rang the bell, but now I am waiting to hear what you wish to say. We use the preterite in a similar way in: *I wanted to ask you if you would give a subscription*. The use of this *preterite of modesty* is commented on by Mr. Arnold Bennett in the following passage (*Roll-Call*, I ch. 1 § 3).

The young girl, opening the front door, had said: "Do you want to see father?" And instantly the words were out George had realized that she might have said: "Did¹⁾ you want to see father?" in the idiom of

1) Italics in the original.

the shop-girl or cierk, and that if she had said 'did' he would have been gravely disappointed and hurt. But she had not! Of course she was incapable of such a locution, and it was silly of him to have thought otherwise, even momentarily.

36. The preterite of modesty is frequent in subordinate clauses expressing a statement, proposal or suggestion. The idea of past time is usually out of the question. This use is found:

(1) in object clauses.

Then I would suggest that you *ceased* trying to clean your finger. Benson, David Blaize, ch. 1.

"Alan, why, are you in love with Stella?" Michael challenged.

"What made you think I *was*?" countered Alan, looking alarmed¹⁾. Sinister Street, p. 714.

Suppose we *went* to one of the Non-Conformist Churches. We can usually count on a good sermon from the minister at Holly Road.

Collinson, Spoken English, p. 68.

(2) in clauses after *it is time, it seems.*

It is time we *gave* a second thought to Puritanism. Gissing, Ryecroft.

It is high time that we *decided* just what is meant by a word. Sapir, Language, p. 32.

I've felt it coming, you know, and it's time I really *struck out* for myself.

Walpole, Fortitude, II, ch. 5 p. 196.

Sidney. Auntie, I know Mother won't want to be disturbed.

Miss Fairfield. It's high time she *was*.

Dane, Bill of Div., in Brit. Pl. p. 682.

The censorship is not a branch of military science and study. It is high time that it *was* made so.

Times Weekly ed. 22/11, 1912 p. 923/3.

1) Perhaps the form *was* should be interpreted as a past tense of concord; see volume 3.

It seems as though Oxford and Cambridge *might* still be permitted to whisper a word in their defence, and that the universities of the provinces *were* not the impregnable homes of an austere and self-denying erudition.

Daily Mail.

It follows from the function of the preterite of modesty that the present tense is also possible.

It is time that I give you some idea of my domestic arrangements.

W. Irving.

Irrealis 37. The preterite is frequently used to express what is thought of as contrary to fact: as an *irrealis*. This use occurs in subordinate clauses only. As has been stated in 27, the difference between the past tense and this preterite is not expressed formally except in the verb *to be*: the forms *I were* and *he were* are used in the *irrealis* only. In colloquial English *was* is also current in this case, as the quotations below will prove. But it would not be possible to substitute *were* for *was* in the sentences illustrating the past tense or the preterite of modesty; compare the preceding sections.

38. The preterite is used as an *irrealis*:

- (1) in adverb clauses of condition, comparison, and concession, with the conjunctions *if*, *as if*, *though*, *as though*, etc.

He makes one realise that if only one *knew* enough about the subject, it would abound in both beauty and interest. Benson, J. of Engl. St. I, 155.

"Well, what you are thinking is, whether it is fair to him to take me up there in case he is drunk..."

"If only it *was* 'in case,'" I said. "You see?"

Michael Arlen, Green Hat ch. 1 § 2.

I should go and do it now if I *were* you. Strike while the iron's hot.

Dane, Bill of Divorcement, Brit. Pl. p. 688.

Thus, after ten years' approved service, a teacher might feel assured of a modest competency even though she never *attained* to headship of school or department.

Times Ed. S. 26/10, 16 p. 182/2.

- (2) in relative clauses, with a function similar to that of conditional adverb clauses.

For some purposes, at any rate, those opposite shores are the true frontiers of Britain, and no account of the island realm would be complete which *ignored* their characteristics.

Mackinder, Brit. and the Brit. Seas ch. 2. p. 17.

"A peace which *left* Belgium's wrongs unavenged," he adds, "and which *did not* provide against their recurrence, would not be a real peace."

Roosevelt, quoted Times W. ed. 27/11, 14.

Nothing could be more interesting and useful at the present time than a book which *succeeded* in doing what this book sets out to do. Athenaeum, 6/12, 13.

- (3) in object clauses with *I wish* in the main clause¹⁾.

I wish I *liked* rice-pudding,

I wish I *were* a twin,

I wish some day a real live fairy

Would just come walking in.

Rose Fyleman in Kooistra and Schutt,

Reader II, 12.

39. A careful examination of the sentences quoted in 38 will show that in most of them the preterite is used to express what is thought of as contrary to fact. But in the last quotation of 38, 2 *succeeded* refers distinctly to a future event that is uncertain, but still possible. We see, therefore, that the irrealis may be the means of arriving at a preterite of modesty; the result is similar

1) When the wish concerns an action by another person than the speaker, a syntactic group with the preterite *would* is used, as is illustrated by the verse quoted.

to the preterites of 35, but the route by which it has been reached is different. The same interpretation may serve for *would* in 38, 3.

40. It has already been stated that the interpretation of a verbal [id] as a past tense, a preterite of modesty, or an irrealis, depends upon the situation only. But it may still be useful to add the following quotations of the preterite in subordinate clauses in the function of a narrative past tense, although in some respects suggesting a modal function.

The rustic who *went* up to London believing that its streets *were* paved with gold would give a very different account of the wealth of the metropolis from that of the man who *expected* to find no gold there at all.

Times Ed. S. 20/8, 1918, p. 361/4.

The following sentence is less easy to interpret:

... and authorship itself — which some might say *was* no such terrible disaster — would be the last pursuit any person would choose for a livelihood.

Baker, Uses of Libraries p. 5 f.

The preterite *was* seems to be the predicate of the relative clause, the sentence *some might say* being parenthetic. But this relative clause is continuative, i. e. it has the function of an independent sentence.

Some preterites, all of them forms of verbs that for various reasons are classed as auxiliaries, are exclusively used as modal preterites (*might*, *should*, *would*, and the isolated form *ought*), or can be so used (*could*), in independent sentences (see *Auxiliaries*). The preterite *was* is rare in this function.

Participle

41. The function of the verbal [id] when not serving as a preterite has been defined negatively in 28. The

uses of the form as a participle must now be treated; they can be classified in two groups, the participle being used:

- (1) as a member of a close syntactic group.
- (2) as an independent element of the sentence, resembling an adjective, so that it may be called a *verbal adjective* in this function.

The character of the participle as a member of a verbal system is generally quite evident in the first case (*In another moment I felt myself lifted*), especially in purely verbal groups (*He has bought some flowers*). The verbal character is less evident in the second function (*a well-written book, a typewritten letter*). It will also be shown that it is not possible in all cases to distinguish neatly between the two functions mentioned above (compare *He was found very ill: found* is verbal, with *He was known to be an honest man: known* is adjectival).

42. The meaning of the participle is naturally clearest when it is used as an independent element of the sentence. For this reason it seems convenient to treat the two functions mentioned in 41 in reversed order, and to begin with the participle as a verbal adjective.

43. The participle when used as an adjective expresses a quality or state that is thought of as the result of an action or occurrence expressed by the verbal stem from which the participle has been formed¹⁾. For examples and a further discussion of various

1) In the case of irregular verbs the participle is not always formed from a verbal stem by means of an inflectional suffix; it may be independent of the stem though evidently connected with it, as in *begun* and the stem *begin*.

shades of meaning expressed by the participle, the reader is referred to the sections that follow immediately on the syntactic functions of the participle, because meaning and syntactic function are inextricably mingled. Like other adjectives the participle can be used attributively and predicatively.

44. The quality or state expressed by the participle when used as a verbal adjective, whether attributively or predicatively, may be the result of an action affecting the person or thing expressed by the leading noun from outside (*a*), or it may be the result of an action or change in the person or thing not thought of as caused by outside influences (*b*).

- a.* a deserted child. a loaded revolver.
- b.* the returned mistress. a travelled person.

The verbs in *a* are transitive, those in *b* are intransitive. It follows from the definition of the meaning of the participle that a verbal adjective can be formed from those intransitives only that express a change of position or state, what are called the *mutative* intransitives. Such verbs as *run*, *wait*, *sit*, *sleep*, *talk* do not form a participle with the function of a verbal adjective.

45. The attributive participle may express the actual result of an action or occurrence thought of without reference to a definite time of the action or to an agent. In this case the participle precedes its leading noun. It occurs of practically all transitive verbs construed with a plain object (*a*) or a prepositional object (*b*), as well as of a number of mutative intransitives (*c*). The participle can also express a possible, not an actual, result (*d*).

- a.* The only sign that she ever gave of disturbance

was a little clucking noise that she made in her mouth like an *aroused* hen.

Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 3. p. 27.

... inquired the shepherd, who found some difficulty in keeping the conversation in the *desired* channel.

Hardy, Madding Crowd ch. 8, p. 68.

So Sophia, faced with the *shut* door of the bedroom, went down to the parlour by the shorter route.

Bennett, Old W. T. I. ch. 2 § 1.

Constance, alone in the parlour, stood expectant by the *set* tea-table. id. ib. II ch. 6 § 1.

The pathetic parts of *The Old Curiosity Shop* are as poor in *understood* and artistically *re-created* experience as *The Rosary* — indeed, I think they are even poorer.

Huxley, Vulgarity p. 59.

b. Stanley had completely seen through the *talked-of* revival of English agriculture.

Galsworthy, Freeland ch. 4.

Crackenhill Hall had always been one of the most *talked-of* farms in the parish of Bruisyard.

Freeman, Joseph ch. 2 p. 6.

c. The *returned* mistress was point by point resuming knowledge and control of that complicated machine — her household. Bennett, Old. W. T. I. ch. 2 § 2.

His mysterious friend, the *escaped* desperado Rob Roy.
Camb. Hist. Engl. Lit. 12, 18.

Dr. Verdon will leave the service of the *abdicated* monarch at the end of the cure at Vichy. Daily Mail.

The Western world listened impatiently before the war to the tittle-tattle of a few *travelled* dreamers.

The *decayed* officer, by degrees, came up alongside his fellow-wayfarer.

Hardy, Return of the Native I ch. 2.

Denis de Beaulieu was not yet two-and-twenty, but he counted himself a *grown* man, and a very accomplished cavalier into the bargain.

Stevenson, Sel. Short St. II, 334.

d. Such tracts were originally covered by woods and

morasses, into which they had no wish to break so long as more easily *cleared* ground was available^{1).}
Oman, Engl. Conq. p. 7.

46. The participle in this construction may be accompanied by an adverb expressing the time or manner of the action or occurrence leading up to it.

What is there about realising things — old, *often told*, believed in things — that stirs such a deep content?

Cotes, Cinderella ch. 16 p. 182.

Aulus Plautius was left in command of the *newly acquired* province. Oman, Engl. Conq. p. 64 f.

Mr. Gregory shows us in a series of fascinating and *lightly written* chapters the thinkers at work.

Times Ed. S. 4/7, 16.

47. It has been stated that the intransitive participle as a verbal adjective occurs of mutative verbs only, and of these only of a limited number. For this reason some further examples may not be out of place: *a departed guest, a withered flower, a retired business-man, a faded material, a fallen dictator, a vanished civilization, absconded debtors, an eloped pair, an expired lease; the ground is carpeted with lately-fallen needles of a chestnut-red* (Hudson, Hampshire Days ch. 1 p. 2).

As the compound intransitives are often mutative when the simple verbs are not (see 304 ff. on aspect), we frequently find such compound participles: *a runaway horse*. Also in this quotation:

She woke next day fairly at ease in her mind, but feeling as one does after any *near-run* escape.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 9 p. 88.

48. The distinction of transitive and intransitive participles, though possibly useful, should not be considered as absolute.

1) Compare 72 on the participial adjectives in *-able*.

The very meaning of the participle makes the distinction of far less importance than in the verb used as the leading member of the predicate. It is often impossible as well as meaningless to distinguish between the two classes, as in the following cases.

Only she said *ever* so often that her *adopted* parent said for Heaven's sake stop, or he should write the word in his letters. de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 26 p. 281.

"Mind your own business!" was the *snapped* rejoinder. Patterson, *Stephen Compton*, p. 4.

Since the settlement of the *threatened* trouble with the spinners Steve had done an unusual amount of public speaking. ib. 135.

Even in the participles from verbs that are always considered to be transitive some are more distinctly expressive of an external action, whereas others rather express the result of an occurrence, like the participles of intransitive verbs. It will be found that in the quotations of 45 the first of each section are mostly suggestive of the result of an action, and that the later ones express the result of an occurrence. See also 50 ff. on the verbal adjectives following the leading noun.

49. A special class of intransitive participles are those connected with verbs such as *to confess* which require what may be called a predicate to complete their meaning: *he confessed that he had murdered the victim* or *he confessed to have murdered the victim*, whence the participial group: *the confessed murderer*.

She took a pen and began a letter to a dear friend, Lucy Darleton, a *promised* bridesmaid. Meredith.

The whole world is wondering at our stupidity in being thus misled by a man who is an *admitted* rebel. English Review¹⁾.

1) Poutsma, Grammar V, 546. He also illustrates *the alleged conspirators, the reputed house of the Virgin Mary at Nazareth, an avowed admirer, a declared lover, a professed cook*.

50. The attributive participle must sometimes follow its leading noun, because it is accompanied by adjuncts that cannot precede an adjective. The same applies to most participles from verbal groups of the type *to pack up, add to*, etc. (see 64 on groups with *up*). The reason for post-position may also be in the meaning of the participle itself: when it distinctly suggests the time of the action or occurrence, or the agent, post-position is necessary. The two cases are frequently found combined for a prepositional adjunct may express the agent (especially with *by*), or the time or manner. On wordorder in these groups, see also vol. 3.

As in the case of pre-position the participle is most frequently formed from a transitive verb (*a*). Occasionally the participle forms part of a verbal group (*b*). The participle may be connected with its noun by a conjunction (*c*).

a. Her three years with Pitt, *passed* in the very centre of splendid power, were brilliant and exciting.

Lytton Strachey, Vict. p. 282.

On the controversial points *touched on* in this volume, I have sought to state the pros and cons as fairly as I could.

Henderson, Ballad p. VII.

On January 23rd Mr. Bonar Law asked a question of the Speaker about the effect of certain amendments *given notice of* by the Government to abolish the occupation franchise.

Everyman, 7/2, 13.

The white house, *timbered* with dark beams in true Worcestershire fashion, and *added-to* from time to time . . .

Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 4 p. 39.

He wished to raise the class at the expense of individuals rather than individuals at the expense of the class. What was more, he was ready at once to be the first unit *sacrificed*.

Hardy, Native III ch. 2 p. 211.

b. The shadowy form *seen* by Venn *to part* from Wildeve in the porch, and quickly *withdraw* into the house, was Thomasin's.

Hardy, Return of the Native II ch. 8.

c. However great in actual practice the king's power may have been, there was always a central assembly, whether *called* Witenagemot or the Great Council, the members of which were never dependent for their right upon the mere personal will of the sovereign.

Constitut. Essays p. 159.

51. When a verb can be construed with two objects the participle is rarely found as an attributive adjunct to the personal noun (the indirect object), and never except in post-position, because there is always a retained object.

The labourers, stripped of their ancient rights and their ancient possessions, *refused* a minimum wage and allotments, were given instead a universal system of pauperism. Hammond, Village Labourer p. 141.

52. Post-position of intransitive participles is unusual except when they are accompanied by prepositional adjuncts (*a*) or such as emphasize the verbal character of the participle (*b*).

a. During the greater part of the afternoon she had been entrancing herself by imagining the fascination which must attend a man *come* direct from beautiful Paris. Hardy, Native II ch. 3 p. 140.

He was a man of rank *sprung* from one of the first families in Portugal.

b. The trade unions, on the other hand, demand that the number of hours *worked* weekly shall be reduced to 44 ...

Times Trading and Eng. Suppl. 22/3, 1930 p. 29.

53. We have seen that participles of transitive verbs may express the result of an occurrence as well as an action. This applies equally to participles following their noun. Thus English not only uses *killed* in the case of *a man killed by*

a burglar but also in *men killed in a skirmish, or in a motor accident*¹⁾.

54. Like most other adjectives, the participles can also be used predicatively, both as a nominal predicate (with the verbs *to stand, become, get, be*: see vol. 3 on *Sentence-Structure*) and as a predicative adjunct to an object. In both functions we can observe the difference of meaning that is formally expressed by pre-position and post-position in the case of attributive participles, but we shall also find that the predicative use leads by insensible stages to the use of the participle as a member of a purely verbal group.

55. The participles of transitive verbs are used as nominal predicates to express the meaning defined in 45 (a); they may also suggest the time or the agent (b), as illustrated in 50 for the attributive participle. As these two meanings of the predicative participle are not formally distinguished it is often vain to attempt a rigid classification. The participle of intransitive verbs is not frequent in this function (c).

a. Then, when the bag was *packed*, he sat on the bed, swung his legs, and thought about everything.

Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 10 § 4 p. 123.

b. Now that the cab is so far from the door, even if she spoke to him, she would not stand *committed* to anything. de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 3 p. 21.

He seemed to go out of his way to get *hurt*.

Punch 31/3, 15.

And to a boy of twelve years a beating is *forgotten* with amazing quickness, especially if it is a week of

1) A comparison with Dutch is instructive: the transitive meaning is expressed by *doodgeschoten*, the intransitive meaning in the case of a military action is rendered by *gesneuveld*, otherwise by *omgekomen*. This is an instructive example suggesting that a 'complete' grammar would include a complete dictionary.

holiday and there have been other beatings not so very long before. Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 3 p. 26.

Without it lay many large gardens and some open meadow-land, and part of that meadow still remains *unbuilt upon*. Athenaeum.

c. The sun is *set*; let's go home.

The guests are all *gone*.

Suppose we take the *adagio* now — if you're *rested*. de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. II p. 99.

She was *resolved* that, cost what it might, Charley must be banished from the Cottage.

Trollope, Three Clerks p. 349.

He is deeply *read* in the writers, ancient and modern, who have treated on the subject.

Verbal Groups 56. The participle of transitive verbs is found in a construction that is formally identical with the one that has just been described as a nominal predicate, without expressing the same meaning. The group may have the character of a phenomenon-word, like a predicative verb, so that the participle, instead of denoting a quality or state as the result of an action or occurrence, denotes the occurrence (*a*) or action (*b*) itself. As the construction of the participle with *to be* is fully illustrated in the chapter on *Auxiliaries*, examples with other verbs will be chiefly given here.

a. Your shoe has come *undone* and I shall be finished by the time you have done it up.

Collinson, Spoken English p. 38.

The monastic system became quickly *spread* over the north and midlands. Wakeman, Introd. p. 48.

A taste for Italian and classic literature became widely *diffused* among the many monasteries which sprang up during this century among the Northern conquerors.

Spence, English Church, p. 21.

It is, however, an excellent thing that bicycles should be getting *called* simply *wheels*. Abercrombie, p. 9.

One of our men got *sent down* (i.e. away from the University for good) ¹⁾.

She'll try and get some shrimps, but everything in the way of fish gets *sent up* to London.

Sweet, Spoken Engl. p. 84.

It was as an experiment to see how much I could really recollect if I once began to try, and then I got led on. De Morgan, Vance, ch. 10.

The last time I got (was) *caught* in a shower, I hadn't any mackintosh on and caught a very bad cold ²⁾.

Collinson, Spoken English p. 34.

That young lassie will get *described* as plump some day, if she doesn't take care.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 5 p. 44.

b. Papal claims became more and more *acquiesced in* by the nation and *connived at* by the king.

Wakeman, Introd. p. 151.

Well, it was time Brown got *married*.

Collinson, Sp. Engl. p. 66.

Good and readable as these addresses are, we should like to see those which deal with these larger topics gathered into a single smaller volume, which at a moderate price might become widely *read* by the people of both countries. Times Lit. 16/4, 14 p. 183/2.

Nolly believed all these statements, and wasn't hoaxing. He had been *told* them by others, Big Boys, and passed them on to me. de Morgan, Vance ch. 11 p. 104.

The gong was *given* a prominent position in the bare hall. Mackenzie, Guy and Pauline p. 345.

57. The distinction of the verbal groups discussed into such as express an occurrence and such as express an activity is not shown by formal means. The interpretation of the quotations in the preceding section, therefore, can hardly be expected to meet with unreserved approval. Activity

1) The speaker was the 'Mr. Venables' familiar to several generations of Oxford students and to readers of *Sinister Street*.

2) The alternative *got (was)* is the author's.

seems to be suggested when the agent is mentioned (in an adjunct with *by*), but it should be remembered that an adjunct with *by* may also denote means. We necessarily seem to have activity expressed when the verb is qualified by an adjunct characterizing the action, as in the following cases.

The top was reached by means of a strong cord.

The top of the mountain was reached by ten o'clock.

The top was reached under the greatest difficulties.

58. Verbal groups similar to those with the transitive participles are rarely found with intransitive participles. The use is restricted to a very small number of mutative intransitives, nearly all expressing movement.

His parents were *grown* old. —

"Look to your safety", he shouted. "The lions are got loose." —

The meadows are so *browned* that only the most deeply rooted plants, such as burnet, show any greenery. Even the permanent vetches are *become* rather flower-crops than green crops. Daily Mail.

See also below on the auxiliary *to have*.

59. The participle as a verbal adjective can be used with verbs construed with an object and a predicative adjunct; see the chapter on *Sentence-Structure* in vol. 3.

I like to have you about the house — you keep the lodgers *contented* and the babies quiet.¹⁾

Walpole Fortitude ch. 5 p. 200.

We found him much *improved*.

Professor Pearl's comments are nearly all worth attention reading, especially on the less known books. On some he thinks no comment *needed* — for instance, the "Origin of Species".

Times Lit. 23/6, 1927, p. 442/3.

1) Note that *contented* is an adjective, not a participle (56 ff.).

He told him to put his trolley somewhere else, and not leave it *stood* in the orfice¹⁾ door.

de Morgan, Vance ch. I.

60. A formally identical group of object and participle is found in many cases when the participle does not express the meaning of a verbal adjective, and the noun or pronoun is only an *apparent* object of the preceding verb, and really serves only as the subject of the verbal meaning expressed by the participle. This apparent object and participle is used:

- (1) with a few verbs expressing a perception (physical or mental): *to feel, hear, see.*
 - (2) with some verbs expressing a meaning that may be defined, though somewhat vaguely, as 'to experience': *have, have known, find, leave.* For *to have*, see also *Auxiliaries.*
 - (3) with some verbs expressing 'to cause': *get, make;* and the verbs of will: *to order, command, etc.*
 - (4) with some verbs expressing liking or preference: *to wish, like.*
- a. In another moment I felt myself *lifted.*

Van Neck, Adv. Engl. Prose p. 126.

The beginner may well feel himself *aggrieved* when he finds himself *required* to know that the letters 'pro v.v.' must be read 'pro vinis venditis', and he may even meet with worse puzzles than this.

Eng. Hist. Rev. vol. 43 (1928) p. 98.

He drew several deep breaths, having heard deep breathing *recommended* by his wife's doctor^{2).}

Galsworthy, Cara an p. 203f.

1) A spelling to denote [ɔfɪs] *office.*

2) It will be noticed that the leading verb in most of the examples is used predicatively, or, as here, in a free adjunct. But other uses are not

She has seen her brother *pointed out* unmistakeably as the tailor-fellow. Meredith, Harrington ch. 14 p. 143.

I have seen it *stated* that his height was 5 feet 10 inches. G. W. E. Russell.

Rosalind saw him *stopped* as he walked through the groups that were lingering silently for a chance of good news. de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 46 p. 413.

I witnessed several struggles with the egg, but at last, in spite of my watchfulness, I did not see it *ejected*¹⁾.

W. H. Hudson, Hampshire Days ch. 1, p. 18.

b. I've known him *taken* for a lord.

Meredith, Harrington ch. 22 p. 229.

As early as the legislation of Athelstan we find the sheriff *given* a yet wider sphere of action.

Constit. Essays p. 129.

My position is peculiar. (Yes, the tea was all right.) I find myself *requested* to be reasonable...

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 47 p. 521.

Jasmine found herself *confronted* by a very bright pair of eyes and *offered* that very plump white hand.

Mackenzie, Rich Relatives ch. 7 p. 192.

His victory left him *bewildered*, amazed, but ambitious to seize opportunity, confident in his ability to succeed.

Botsford, Engl Soc. 18th Cent. p. 3.

c. He had always said that the difficulty, so far as the diplomatist was concerned, was not to tell the truth, but to get it *believed* when one had told it.

Sir Edward Grey, reported Times 13/3, '14.

Curious, how things still got themselves *noticed* when all her faculties were centred in gazing at his face.

Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 29 p. 369.

impossible; in the following case the attributive participle is the leading verb.

The garden was of the grassy, shady kind, often seen attached to old houses in provincial towns. Eliot, Clerical Life (Janet ch. 7).

1) This is instructive with regard to the character of the participle: it must express the occurrence, for this is contrasted with the state or condition which was the result, and which the author did observe. See 131.

At every place we went to, I took care to do something that would get us *talked about* for the rest of the day.

Chesterton, Innoc. of F. Brown p. 22f.

In that case, as soon as ever there is a vacant seat, he takes the opportunity to get himself *elected*.

Gill, Government p. 108.

Art schools are making their influence *felt* and their possibilities *recognized*. Times Ed. S. 5/8, 20.

They give an impression of such feebleness, beneath the bluster, as a person who shouts to make himself *obeyed*. Engl. Rev. Oct. 1913.

Winnie made it *understood* that the present engaged her attention. Pett Ridge, Garland ch. 13 p. 221.

H. H.¹⁾ pp. 122, 123, makes Cumbra *slain* by Sigbert because he remonstrated with him in the name of the people for his misgovernment.

Plummer, Saxon Chron. II p. 44f.

The Queen, displeased with the play, ordered it *stopped*. Wallace, English Drama p. 106.

d. Yes, it was an old story, he said, and he wanted it *told* again by someone else.

Hudson, Hampshire Days ch. 1 p. 14.

I don't know exactly what I do want *done*.

Carolyn Wells, Vicky Van ch. 7 p. 106.

To-day is Vicky's birthday. — She didn't want it *known*, lest the guests should bring gifts.

ib. ch. 4 p. 52.

He wants the Arabs *departed*²⁾.

Times Lit. 23/12, 20.

Mr. Osborne wished a tree *cut down*.

Gaskell, W. and D. I, ch. 8.

Salley dear, your mother does not tell you because she wishes the whole thing *buried and forgotten*.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 16 p. 165.

1) i.e. the historian Henry of Huntingdon.

2) Examples of intransitive participles (of the mutatives only, as in all the other constructions treated) are rare.

She could not wish it *changed*.

Hichens, Ambition ch. 9 p. 98.

And yet on that evening he had entered into his great friendship with Mrs. Mansfield. He could not wish that *annulled*.
ib. ch. 11 p. 121.

Monkley told the Baron that he did not wish anything *said* about Sylvester's father.

Mackenzie, Sylvia p. 68.

Free Adjuncts 61. The participle of transitive verbs is often used in free adjuncts, both as a related (*a*) and as an absolute participle (*b*), including the prepositional constructions (*c*). In both of these constructions the participle expresses a state or condition which is considered as accompanying the predicative verb rather than as qualifying a noun (or pronoun). It thus has the meaning of the verbal adjectives without sharing their syntactic function. The participles of the mutative intransitives are occasionally used in the case under *a*.

a. Once *seen* it can never be forgotten.

Mair, Engl. Lit. p. 81.

Left in the positions which they¹⁾ had originally occupied, the tribes might have retained these institutions unaltered for centuries.

Gardiner and Mullinger, Introd. p. 18.

For a few dizzy minutes they sat together and jarred. *Unrestrained* by Margery's presence, Frank would have been rude to Mrs. Rowlands, ...

C. D. Jones, Everlasting Search ch. 1 p. 11.

But whether *considered* with awe, or *mocked* or summarily *dismissed*, the examiner is loved by none.

Times Ed. S. 11/7, 18.

Arrived at the spot, the party lost no time in getting to work.
Athenaeum, 7/10, 11.

1) Viz. the Jutes, Saxons, and Angles.

And now, *returned* home from a long sea-voyage, he was coming to visit my mother.

Mary Lamb in Sel. Short Stories II p. 1.

b. The reading *ended*, the Prince took the oath of allegiance, and signed the declaration.

Times W. 22/2, 18.

Yet, all deductions and qualifications *admitted*, Wordsworth's essays on his own art are valuable and instructive reading. Magnus, Primer of Wordsworth, p. 166.

Morning traffic over, and the western part of Kentish Town *provided* with greens and fruit, and the midday meal *cleared* away, Mrs. Enefer said, with relish, "Now then, what's the programme for the day?"

Pett Ridge, Garland.

The limitations of her materials *taken into account*, she has produced a most interesting and always tactful biography.

The song *ended*, and as we went our way¹⁾, I said — "There, Brum, what do you think of that?"

Davies, Super-Tramp ch. 6 p. 40.

The light of his faith quite *put out*, and his affections *made* desolate, he had clung with all the force of his nature to his work and his money.

Eliot, Silas Marner ch. 5.

But, *yielded* all that obeisance, they did a good deal for the town. Gaskell, Wives I ch. 1 p. 10.

Given a king, a new order of nobility was sure to arise — nobility by service. Stubbs, Lect. p. 8.

They enjoy learning it, *given* sympathetic teachers²⁾.

Times Ed. S. 27/2, 19.

c. Even now, with this conversion *accomplished*, we should be immensely strengthened. Times W. 2/8, 15.

The streets of the town were deserted, clean, smelling of the fields, hay-carts, and primroses, with the darkness *broken* by dim lamps and a slender moon.

Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 10 § 4 p. 124 f.

1) Note the coordination of the free adjunct and the clause.

2) Observe the wordorder of the last three quotations.

With the imagination thus *aroused*, there came an insistent and consistent demand for intelligent travel and for authentic accounts of experiences.

Botsford, Engl. Soc. 18th Cent. p. 17.

Only with the last corner *turned*, the last step *taken*, the explorer might find that he was looking down into the gulf of a crater. Lytton Strachey, Vict. p. 273.

My Father was often away all night without notice *given*, and my Mother postponed belief in disaster quite contentedly. Morgan, Vance ch. 15.

But, after all *said*, it was in his dealings with children that the best and sweetest side of his personality was manifested. Galsworthy, Caravan p. 159.

For examples of verbal groups consisting of a participle with *being* and *having*, see the sections on the verbal ing (128).

62. The participle in a free adjunct may have the undoubted character of a verbal adjective, just as non-verbal adjectives occur in this construction. In the following quotation the association of meaning between *stained* and the verbal stem is so slight that it might just as well be taken for a derivative from the noun.

He entered the room in his miner's dress, his hand and face *stained* with dust, his hair matted and hanging over his eyes. Shorthouse, Inglesant ch. 12.

63. It has been shown that the participle in predicative use and in free adjuncts is frequently a phenomenon-word rather than a verbal adjective. But all these constructions are restricted to the transitive and the mutative intransitive verbs. The participle can also form a purely verbal group with the auxiliary *to have* to express what is called the *perfect aspect*; in this construction all participles can be used including those of the non-mutative intransitives such

as *run*, *wait*, *sit*, *sleep*, *talk*, *kneel*. The use of the perfect is fully treated in the sections on the auxiliary *have*.

Compound Participles

64. The participles, both the distinctly verbal ones and the participial adjectives treated in 66 ff., often enter into composition, a noun or adjective or adverb forming the first element: *a bed-ridden patient*, *soberly conducted people*. These compounds are used attributively and predicatively and naturally resemble the purely nominal compounds which are formed in the same way, such as *dark-eyed* (see vol. 3). The compounds with the negative prefix *un-* are especially frequent; also a number of participles from compound verbs with *up*.

Many *time-expired* veterans settled on allotments in the surrounding country-side.

Oman, Engl. Conq. p. 62.

At the head of the steps up to the *wide open-thrown* double doors stood the beaming group of uncle, aunt and cousins. E. Everett Green, *The Temptation of Mary Lister* VI, p. 101.

And all the while learned carriage-folk poured in, mothers, daughters, *well-dined* fathers, young men with long hair. Academy, 25/3 99.

In the corner a French window opens on to a *snow-bound* garden. Clemence Dane, *Bill of Divorcement*, Brit. Pl. p. 647.

Thunderstruck and *horrorstricken*, the Doctor shook off the other's touch. Buchanan, *That Winter Night*.

The reason why we find both forms in the above quotation, apart from rhythm, is probably in the first place that repetition of the same form would be absurd. But it may also be noted that the participle in *thunderstruck* is more closely

connected in meaning with the verbal stem (*struck by thunder*) than in the case of *horror-stricken* (*stricken with horror*).

His desperate resolution in covering the retreat of his *panic-stricken* soldiers. Cont. Rev. Oct. 1930. p. 499.

Also *panic-struck*.

Air-struck heiress in tears. Miss Boll refused permission to fly Atlantic in *Miss Columbia*¹⁾.

Star headline, 6/9, 1927.

Wedderburn's *dim-litten room*.²⁾

Sinister Street p. 737.

The complete understanding between his mother and father excited, too, his *unstinted* admiration.

Sidney Lee, in Engl. 19th Cent. II p. 2.

Somewhat desolate and *uncared for* in appearance.

NED.

Mr. Utterson's nerves, at this *unlooked-for* termination, gave a jerk. Stevenson, Dr. Jekyll, p. 70.

She tended him through a series of *unheard-of* illnesses.

Thackeray, Vanity Fair ch. 67.

It was a pretty little house, in very charming country — in an *untravelled* corner of Normandy, near the sea. Sel. Short Stories II 396.

... of later travels as a little maiden, by diligence to Pau and the *then undiscovered* Pyrenees, to Montpellier, and a Nice as yet unspoiled.

Galsworthy, Caravan p. 165.

A short, *clean-shaved* man.

Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 22 p. 265.

His dark *clean-shaved* face. ib. ch. 8 p. 96.

His broad *unshaven* face. ib. ch. 24 p. 289.

His brown *unshaven* cheeks. ib. ch. 7 p. 74.

The difference of form in the last case is probably the result of the more distinctly verbal character of *shaved* when

1) In this case *struck* is the only form that is possible, because *stricken* invariably refers to unfavourable circumstances.

2) This form is quite exceptional.

compared with *unshaven*, which is differentiated in meaning and expresses: 'without a beard or moustache'. Similarly *unwashen*:

Grimy hands and *unwashen* faces.

Walpole, Fort. I ch. 1 p. 4.

A got-up woman; locked-up capital; a made-up tale; fully paid-up shares; a put-up job.

Adjectives as Occasional Participles

65. Some adjectives are occasionally used as verbal adjectives although they are not connected with any living verbal system at all (*a*) or connected only by means of an ending that is not a verbal suffix in English (*b*). The verbal character may be shown by the situation only, as in the cases under *a*, but also by the adjuncts and by wordorder, as in the adjectives in *-able* and occasionally those in *-ent*; see vol. 3 on wordorder in attributive groups.

Compare also 157.

a. Augustine's brother and father were at the front, and Madame's *dead* brother had been a soldier in the Crimean War. Galsworthy, Caravan p. 168.

But from that time I never ceased pondering on the sad story of my *dead* mamma.

Sel. Short St. II p. 4.

... but by some helpful participation in those public responsibilities which his *dead* father had shared with the Queen. Sidney Lee, Engl. 19th Cent. II p. 3.

The Bushmen of South Africa and the recently *extinct* Tasmanians are in some ways intermediate between the two groups. Fleure, Races of Mankind p. 16.

b. All the people *present*.

When the author's full name is known these are readily *findable* in the General Catalogue.

Baker, Uses of Libr. p. 78.

There were days when Sophia seemed to possess it; but there were other days when Sophia's pastry was uneatable by any one except Maggie.

Bennett, Old W. T. I ch. 3 § 1 p. 49.

"My own people generally call me Ted," he answered after the faintest hesitation

"Ted is *much preferable*", said Mrs. Copleston.

D. Wyllarde, The Holiday Husband ch. 16 p. 209.

Participles dissociated from their Verbal System

66. Participles may be evidently associated with a verbal system in their form but express a meaning that the verbal system does not express. Thus in *a beaten track*, *a stolen match*, also *pleased*, *distinguished*, *vexed*, *surprised*, *mistaken*, *engaged*: And as a fact Maggie had fallen in love. In seventeen years she had been *engaged* eleven times. (Bennett, Old, W. T. I ch. 1 § 2). In all these cases there is not a real participle *beaten*, *stolen*, *pleased*, *surprised*, *engaged* with the meanings described above; but an adjective expressing a condition or state without reference to any action or occurrence. Such words are ordinary adjectives used attributively or predicatively only, not in verbal groups¹⁾.

Now there is no *known* explanation for this phenomenon. Arlen, Green Hat ch. 3 § 1 p. 70.

How close was the religious tie between the continental and the insular Celts, we have already seen, when dealing with the *vexed* question of the Druids.

Oman, Engl. bef. Conq. p. 32.

*Outspoken Essays*²⁾.

By W. R. Inge.

1) For examples, see also the sections on wordorder in attributive groups in vol. 3.

2) Compare 50 on the participles of such groups as *to speak out*.

... rubbing his (the dog's) *shot* side against her *shot* silk¹⁾.
Sweet, Elem. no. 76.

To the general English reader the more interesting because less *hackneyed* portion of the book will probably be that which describes the course of education in Canada and in the United States. Athenaeum 21/2, 14.

The dissociation in meaning is frequently shown by *formal dissociation*, and by *syntactic differences*.

67. Formal dissociation is rare in the apparent participles with the regular suffix [ɪd, d, t]: [lənid, dɒgɪd, kə:sɪd] *learned, dogged, cursed* by the side of [lə:nt, dɒgd, kə:st] *learned, dogged, cursed* as genuine participles:

At that rate I shall be up first after all. — Oh no, you won't. I've only got to do up my collar, if I can find that blessed²⁾ stud and put on my coat.

Collinson, Spoken English p. 38.

In the irregular verbs there are several participial forms in -en that are exclusively used as attributive adjectives, whereas the genuine participle has no ending. Such pairs are *bounden* — *bound*, *drunken* — *drunk*, *shrunken* — *shrunk*, *sunken* — *sunk*, *stricken* — *struck*. Other participial adjectives in -en form pairs with consonantal participles: *carven* — *carved*, *cloven* — *cleft*, *graven* — *graved*, *molten* — *melted*, *proven* — *proved*, *rotten* — *rotted*, etc.

Less often do we find adjectives like *roast* by the side of the participle *roasted*; or *sodden*, *soddened* by the side of the participle *sod* (found in literary or archaic English only); also *swelled* (*swelled head*: conceit) by the side of the participle *swollen*.

one's bounden duty; a carven image; a cloven hoof;
a drunken man; ill-gotten gains; a graven image; molten

1) A pun on the difference of meaning between the participle (*shot side*) and the adjective (*shot silk*). 2) [blesɪd].

lead; roast meat; a rotten plank; a shrunken frame; sodden fields, brutes; a stricken deer; sunken eyes; a swollen face, etc.

Beneath the soddened soil life is busy now.

Riley, Netherleigh.

By the side of the participles *bespoken*, *woven* we find the attributive form without *n*: *a bespoke bootmaker*, *cream wove paper* (also *woven*).

68. From the fact that genuine participles can be used as verbal adjectives it follows that we may find both the special dissociated participial forms and the regular participles in attributive use. The difference is often unimportant, but the participle suggests that the state or condition is connected with an action or occurrence, a connotation that is absent in the case of the participial adjectives; thus we find *roast meat* and *roasted meat*¹⁾.

Her eyes looked terribly large for her *shrunk* face.
Peard, Madame p. 255.

Among the 285 refugees are the wives of two captains of *sunken* vessels. Times W. 6/4, 17.

The steamship Yarrowdale was captured and sent away with about four hundred of the crews of other *sunk* vessels. ib. 27/1, 17.

69. In some cases the form without *-en* is not only used as a participle, but also as a predicative adjective in the special sense of the attributive form in *-en*. Thus: *the man was drunk*, *he is bound to approve of it*. But some of the participial forms in *-en* are occasionally found predicatively with *to be* or another copula (*a*); exceptionally also to form a verbal group (*b*). *Beholden* is always predicative. All these uses are restricted to literary or would-be literary English.

1) Also *roasted meat* e.g. in Gissing, Ryecroft.

a. And now he was feebly *drunken* with my whisky.
 Wells, Tono-Bungay ch. 3.

All these statements were historically untrue, or
unproven. Wakeman, Introd. p. 135.

Was the hope expressed in those phrases a dream?
 Is it already *proven* a dream?

Wells, What's Coming p. 9.

Moreover, the road is so deeply *sunken* between two
 steep banks.... Benson, Thread of Gold p. 69.

The air in Sofia is keen and bracing; the weather
 cold, with a touch of sleet. The town is clean, well
 laid out, well *paved*, with good tramways.

Times W. 22/11, 12.

b. It has been *proven*, I take it, as thoroughly as
 anything can be proven in this world.

Wells, Country p. 162.

The art of biography has *sunken* low in this country.
 Sat. Rev. 16/10, 1897.

70. The adjectival rather than verbal character of participial forms may be shown syntactically:

- a) by the way in which *degree* is expressed.
- b) by the association of meaning with a noun rather than with the formally identical verb.

71. In the case of adjectives (and adverbs) degree is expressed by *very*, *so*, and *too*; whereas verbs, including participles, take *very much*, *so much*, and *too much*.

A good many participial adjectives take the adverbs of degree peculiar to adjectives: *very pleased*, *so tired*, etc. (*a*); others take either, the construction with *much* being naturally preferred by writers trained in the old tradition, but not really contrary to the spoken language (*b*). The classification is a matter of the dictionary rather than of a grammar. The adjectival character of a participial form may also be shown by the place of an adverb of degree in *-ly* (*c*).

a. Truth to tell, she could not conceal her very pleased surprise at the exceptional though severe good taste which Steve had shown in the whole affair.

Patterson, Compton p. 220.

Surely one can't be too interested in them?

Galsworthy, Fraternity ch. I p. 18.

She's refused to — she's far too upset.

Chapin, New Morality, in Brit. Pl. p. 552.

His mouth was very set and determined.

He began to be very satisfied with himself.

Bennett, Old W. T. III ch. I § 1.

b. I was very surprised — a caller for Gerald March!

Arlen, Green Hat ch. I p. 7.

I was so much surprised at the odd scene that I asked one of the officials what it all meant.

Benson, Thread of Gold p. 71.

At all events father was very gratified.

Cotes, Cinderella ch. I.

c. A very little reflection and inquiry will suffice to show how *completely* mistaken this view really is.

Lytton Strachey, Books and Characters p. 36.

The participial adjectives cannot be classed with the non-verbal adjectives. For even those that usually or invariably take *very*, *so*, and *too*, and could take the suffixes of comparison as far as their form is concerned, are invariably compared by means of *more* and *most*; thus the monosyllabic *staid* and *tired*, whose association with the verbal system is extremely weak if not completely broken, compare with *more* and *most*.

It is naturally possible for a participial adjective to break the last link with its verbal system, and to take the suffixes of comparison.

"Rotten for her." — "Rottener for him."

Dane, Bill of Div. in Brit. P. p. 685.

On the other hand, a participle may be completely dissociated from its verbal system because it is the sole survivor,

as in the case of *afraid*, and yet retain the traditional adverbs of degree instead of adopting the suffixes.

He was very much afraid of dogs.

Sweet, Spoken English p. 48.

I was more afraid than I cared to show.

72. When a participle is used as a verbal adjective expressing a condition or state as the result of an action or occurrence that is not connected with a definite time or with an agent (45), its nominal character is very prominent. In this case it may be doubtful whether we have indeed a participial formation, i.e. a form connected with a verbal system, or an adjective, frequently one derived from a noun that is identical with the verb, by means of the same suffix: *clad*, always with an adverb of manner, as in *thinly clad*, *warmly clad*, which is not connected with *to clothe* to a modern speaker, whatever may be its history; also *booted*, *spurred*, etc. (see vol. 3). *Experienced* is to be interpreted as a nominal rather than a verbal adjective¹); similarly *stained* in the quotation of 62; *a ruined building* may suggest a building *in ruins* rather than a building *ruined* (by time or by man). The absence of a formal distinction between the two classes of words naturally makes it impossible for English speakers to be aware of a strict classification.

Verbal ing

73. The suffix -ing, like the suffix [-id] as far as it is used to form participles and adjectives, is of mixed inflectional and derivative character. The treatment of the verbal ing will consequently follow the lines laid down in the chapter on the *Participle*, and we shall first

1) The 'historical' origin of the word does not concern us here: there is such a phenomenon as re-interpretation.

deal with the verbal ings that are part of a complete verbal system, with regard to their functions in the sentence and the constructions to which they give rise, as well as to the meaning expressed by them, reserving a full discussion of the last till a comparison can be made between them and other verbal forms (the stem and various derivatives). In the second place the occasional ings and the compounds with ing for their second element (types *dressmaking* and *prizefighting*) will be treated.

The ing as a Member of a Complete Verbal System

74. Any verb that can be considered as a verb of the usual type may be said to have a form in -ing, either actually or potentially. This *complete* verbal ing is used in four functions:

- (1) as a prepositional adjunct, including prepositional objects;
- (2) as a plain (i. e. non-prepositional) adjunct, including plain objects;
- (3) as the subject of the sentence;
- (4) as a nominal predicate and as a predicative adjunct.

75. The ing can be used as a prepositional adjunct qualifying a verb or verbal group (*a*). In many cases the ing has the character of a prepositional object (*b*). A strict classification is naturally impossible.

a. Take a piece of tracing-paper and copy this map.
Or use transparent drawing-paper and trace the map
by laying your paper on top.

Collinson, Spoken Engl. p. 18.

In the normal way, it is past denying that most of us do believe that our minds *are* very different from our bodies when both are going concerns. Laird p. 6.

You don't think I'm going to be frightened into apologizing — do you?

Chapin, New Morality in Brit. pl. p. 565.

Don't make a habit of playing cards or of reading the sporting columns.

Dean Inge, quoted Punch, 1/10, 30 p. 365/1.

b. I'm thinking of going for a row on the lake.

Collinson, Spoken Eng. p. 10.

I shall look forward to seeing her. ib. p. 30.

I only want to sit quietly somewhere where I can hear what Ivor is saying and save him from promising anything that he can't perform.

Chapin, New Morality, Brit. Pl. p. 552.

If this correspondence were printed as an Appendix, the Appendix would be longer than the book. The two together would make the kind of novel some people aim at writing now. Baring, Tinker's Leave p. 7.

76. The prepositional ing is frequent as an adjunct to nouns (*a*) and adjectives (*b*). We might distinguish prepositional objects here too, but the classification would be even more arbitrary than in the case of adjuncts to verbs. When the ing can be interpreted as an adjunct it frequently expresses time or place; in other cases *of* is the usual preposition.

a. But you and he won't be there, so what's the use in making plans?

Mackenzie, Rich Relatives ch. 9 p. 240.

What's the use of arguing? I've made up my mind.

Cl. Dane, Bill of Div. in Brit. Pl. p. 692.

(London) would strike us as a city of insanitary slums, but its inhabitants were proud of it, and not least of the wonderful scheme for lighting the streets on winter evenings. Somervell, Hist. of Engl. p. 54.

I have got out of the way of smoking cigarettes.

Collinson, Spoken Engl. p. 26.

He is considerably sparing you the trouble of having to take a bath. Huxley, Vulgarity p. 4.

b. At least, he might answer, — a hurried scribbling, showing how much bored he was at doing it.

Enchanted April, by Elizabeth (T.) p. 133.

Peter was not afraid of being alone.

Walpole, Fort. I ch. 2 p. 15.

The most refined spirits need not be ashamed in taking a hearty interest in the rediscovered mystery of the actual world. Huxley, Vulgarity, p. 13.

Ziska's sidelong glance of scorn at the prostrate figure was incapable of rousing the least resentment.

He is fond of hearing his own voice.

77. The prepositional ing is never used to express the aim of the action denoted by the leading word (see 208ff.). The usual prepositions in adjuncts expressing aim are *to* and *for*; when these are used in a different meaning they are construed with an ing, like any other preposition.

78. When *to* is construed with a verbal ing it often expresses direction, both in the local and in the transferred sense (*a*); the latter may lead to other meanings (*b*). The ing may sometimes be interpreted rather as a prepositional object.

a. Tibetan was therefore driven to translating the great majority of these Sanskrit words into native equivalents. Sapir, Language p. 210.

So I fell to wondering how many more of those present hailed him as the author of "Dodo" or "The Challoners". Everyman, 9/11, 12.

He made an attempt to read, failed, and fell again to thinking. Galsworthy, Caravan p. 3.

I look forward with confidence to securing the agreement of those two great countries. Times W. 16/11, 17.

Here were his mother and the uncle ... apparently in the fairest way to becoming fast friends.

Princess Priscilla ch. 8 p. 110.

But I cannot nerve myself to accepting such a state of things on hearsay. De Morgan, Vance ch. 16.

Since Mr. Belloc has taken to producing books at his present pace we have sought in vain for a return to the happy style of 'The Path of Rome'.

Athenaeum, 28/12, 12.

The tendency to finding matter for hero-worship in Mary's endurance was much stronger with Beatrice than with Miss Oriel.

Trollope, Dr. Thorne ch. 26 p. 277.

Cedric was used to seeing it there.

Burnett, Fauntleroy ch. 2.

b. You've got your best years ahead of you. Do you think I am going to look on while you devote them to fetching hairpins for a fool of a woman.

Chapin, New Morality, Brit. Pl. p. 568.

If he could only make up his mind to not alighting at Chancery Lane, he would have two whole minutes for consideration.

De Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 2 p. 9.

79. The adjuncts with *for* and verbal ing may express direction or tendency, cause, or purpose¹⁾.

Hunting, hawking, and shooting were, however, his chief delights, and there Huygens, on account of his propensity *for falling* off his horse, did not shine.

Cont. Rev. Oct. 1930 p. 500.

No man who is concerned for the future of human society can neglect the peasant; and there is much to be said *for beginning* with the peasant.

Coulton, Medieval Village p. 1.

Clearly it is idle to blame Dryden *for not painting* the passions, since that was not what he was trying to do.

Times Lit. 15/7, 29 p. 629.

He was cross with me *for being* so late.

Collinson, Sp. Engl. p. 12.

1) The meaning 'in favour of' is illustrated in 75b.

I shan't blame people a bit *for cutting me.*

Chapin, New Morality, Brit. Pl. p. 538.

She was dressed *for going out.*

Princess Prisc. X ch. 5 p. 62.

... the best and nicest place *for living* at the bottom
(viz. of society) would be England. ib. ch. 1 p. 17.

The fact that certain sounds are used in a language
for distinguishing the meanings of words does not enter
into the definition of a phoneme.

Maitre Phon. Oct.—Dec. 1929 p. 44.

80. Among the prepositional adjuncts we must include
the construction with proclitic *a-*, accompanying verbs of
movement or *to be*. The use is not part of the colloquial
standard, but rather an occasional literary borrowing from
dialectal English, or a reminiscence of earlier English.

As the ninth century wore on, a large part of the
whole Scandinavian people had been *a-Viking* to the
most various parts of the world. Trevelyan, Hist. p. 75.

A journalist may go *a-picnicking*. A journalist may
go *a-dancing*. But the paper must not suffer. Proofs
left unread by day must be read by night.

Niven, Porcelain Lady (p. 217).

During the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth
centuries, when the modern states were *a-building*, it
was the Jews who were most influential as army con-
tractors and financiers to Courts and Governments.

Nation, July 12, 1913 p. 558/2.

The cases of *in* with a verbal ing in the following quo-
tations are probably conscious archaisms. The last may also
be an attempt at a 'correct' spelling of the prefix *a-*.

The Palais Richelieu was at this time *in building*.
Stanley Weyman, Red Robe.

The two boys were again *in grappling* with each
other. Pett Ridge, Thanks to Sanderson.

81. The prepositional ing is not frequent in free adjuncts and is chiefly restricted to those with *on*, *upon* and *after* (*a*), apart from the 'absolute adjuncts' expressing the subject of the ing illustrated in 115. Occasionally, it is found without a subject being mentioned in the rest of the sentence (the 'unrelated adjunct').

a. On asking for Miss Nunn, she was led to a back room *on* the ground floor, and there waited for a few moments. Gissing, Odd Women ch. 3.

She vanished for a minute or two, and went in. Her grandfather was safely asleep in his chair. 'Now then,' she said, *on returning*, 'walk down the garden a little way, and when I'm ready I'll call you.'

Hardy, Native II ch. 4 p. 154.

I am very pleased to meet you *after hearing* so much about you. Collinson, Sp. Engl. p. 20.

b. But *before looking* at the word more closely, it is to be said that his definition seems too loose in one respect. Times Lit. 13/11, 24 p. 717/3.

82. Another use that seems best treated here is the ing after the correlative conjunctions *as* and *than*. On the close connection between these conjunctions and the prepositions, see vol. 2.

He even went so far as *talking* about a special license.

V. Bridges, The Red Lodge ch. 7 p. 160.

(My watch) gains, which is better than *losing* anyhow. Collinson, Spoken English p. 26.

A different case, with *as* in a predicative adjunct, is quoted in 113 (*reported as saying*).

Plain Adjunct **83.** The verbal ing as a plain adjunct may qualify verbs; the adjunct often expresses the manner (*a*), cause (*b*), or means (*c*) of the action. The action may be expressed by a noun or an adjective (*d*). See 89.

a. Mr. Westcott spent the day *doing* business in Truro.
Walpole, *Fortitude* I ch. 3 p. 28.

"Are you in your senses, Man?" it asked; "we have no more time to waste *idling* about here . . ."
Galsworthy, *Caravan* p. 21.

The subject of money is a very complicated one, and you are recommended to devote yourself to the rules for 'making' it rather than to waste your time *understanding* it. Quoted *Athen.* 14/9, 12.

Defoe spent his life *agitating* for the new ideas introduced by the Revolution.

Sefton Delmer, *English Lit.* p. 96.

She had spent the day *pottering* about her bed-room.
Vachell, *Quinneys'* p. 65.

b. And when I showed Uncle Tom that suit-case, he nearly died *laughing*. J. Webster, *Just Patty*.

It is no use mending that boy's clothes. He tears his coat *climbing* trees, and wears out the knees of his trousers *kneeling* on the damp grass.

Sweet, *Elementarbuch*, p. 119.

c. He made considerable money *cherry-growing*.
Vachell, *Spragge* p. 31.

"It just shows," he continued, "what these European markets are, when a fellow can make a reputation *cooking peas*." Mrs. Wharton, *Mirth*, p. 174.

d. Like his father, Huygens was a good amateur artist, spending much of his time making sketches, often for the Prince, while the latter could dash off in the morning *after a night in the saddle reconnoitring*.

Cont. *Rev. Oct.* 1930 p. 500.

I was engaged *building* my porch when the man said this. Baring-Gould, *Old Country Life* ch. p. 46.

He was hard at work *ploughing*.

Blackmore, *Lorna Doone* ch. 69 p. 528.

84. When the ing accompanies a verb of motion it may express purpose (a). In many cases the -ing is not subordinate in meaning to the verb of motion,

being in fact rather the leading member of the verbal group (b) Some cases of *to be* with a verbal -ing are closely related to this use (c).

a. When the war ended in Troy, with the fall of the city, Menelaus went *looking* for Helen, with a sword in his hand. Erskine, Private Life of Helen of Troy I ch. 2 p. 13.

Then I got in my car and went *exploring*.

Warwick Deeping, Sorrell & Son.

If trouble befell the Christian preachers who came settling among them they took it as a proof of the wrath of the older gods. Green, Short Hist. p. 26.

Prebendal stalls, Fanny, don't generally go *begging* long among parish clergymen.

Trollope, Framley ch. 18 p. 173.

(They) went sailing and climbed up Beachy Head and watched a cricket match in Devonshire Park.

Sinister Street p. 162.

It was such an extraordinary thing to go *smashing* a window like that. Wells, Harman ch. 9 § 3.

b. He suddenly came *staggering* towards me.

Wells, Country p. 88.

Georgiana came to her garden window and stood watching me. Allen, Kentucky Cardinal p. 131.

"Aha!" cried old Hubert, who had entered unperceived, and stood looking over her shoulder.

Buchanan, That Winter Night ch. 5

Sophia sat *waiting* on the sofa in the parlour.

Bennett, Old W. Tale IV ch. 3 § 5.

The doctor's pony cart came rattling up to the door.

Walpole, Fort. I ch. 8 § 4 p. 95.

There she was, the little Old Lady in her bonnet, sitting *smiling* and *bowing*. ib. II ch. 4 § 3 p. 100.

Peter stood holding the letter in his hand, looking out on to the black square of sky.

ib. III ch. I § 3 p. 239.

6. That meant then that he would arrive home

about half-past-ten; and there would *be* his aunt and his grandfather and his father sitting up *waiting* for him.

ib. I ch. 2 p. 15.

He *was* a long time *reaching* Stanhope Gate.

Galsworthy, Man of Property ch. 7 p. 99.

He *was* two years *writing* this work.

id. Caravan p. 421.

The syntactic subordination of the verbs of motion may be shown by the stress. Thus in Sweet's *Spoken English* we find them marked : i. e. with medium stress or - i. e. weak stress, whereas the ing is not marked, i. e. has strong stress.

əi r̥imembə həu ðə sanſain :keim strijm̥ɪŋ in əuvə -ðæt
ould desk. p. 50.

ðə moum̥ɪnt ij so əs, ij dzamt daun, ən -keim :ranɪŋ
tə mijt əs. ib. p. 54.

The word-order *went spelling on* also seems to support this interpretation of the above sentences.

I was too intent on my employment to observe him, and *went spelling on*.

Mary Lamb, in Selected Short Stories II p. 2.

85. The verb accompanying the ing may be a subordinate element of the group with the ing. On the verbal groups of *to be* and ing (the *progressive*), see Auxiliaries.

I don't *seem making* tunes at all. I don't seem to have anything to make them of.

Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 3 p. 20.

I entered, I suppose, noiselessly, and instead of taking my machine at once, *remained hovering* for some minutes, regarding the admirable and unparalleled appointment of the place. Wells, *Rampole Island* ch. 1 p. 41.

After talking that matter over we *got conversing* on other subjects. Holmes, *Over the Tea-Cups* p. 19.

But the creature backed away from her hand, snuffling, and its cynical, soft eyes with chestnut lashes seemed

warning the girl that she belonged to the breed that might be trusted to annoy.

Galsworthy, *Freelands* ch. 37.

All the things I wanted *seem falling* into my hands.
Waugh, *Loom of Youth* III ch. 8.

She'd no business to *go dragging up* Father¹⁾ and the divorce on Christmas morning to upset you.

Clemence Dane, *A Bill of Divorcement*,
in *Brit. Pl.* p. 651.

86. When used with verbs that can take a noun-object, the verbal ing has the character of an object too; although here as elsewhere a strict classification of objects and adverb adjuncts is impossible.

She loved *giving* people the impression that she was adventurous. Hichens, *Ambition* ch. 7 p. 78.

Constance, trembling, took pains to finish *undressing* with dignified deliberation.

Bennett, *Old W. Tale* I ch. 2 § 3 p. 46.

It is not surprising to hear that she (viz. Charlotte Brontë) did not enjoy *writing* her books.

Times Lit. 13/4, 16.

He minded, curiously, *leaving* Peter.

Walpole, *Fort. I* ch. 6 p. 67.

I see you've got a spare wheel. — I can't risk *getting* a puncture a long way from any repair-shop.

Collinson, *Sp. Engl.* p. 86.

For more examples see 361 ff., where the verbal ing and the stem with *to* are compared.

87. The ing can be used as an object with verbs construed with an object and predicative adjunct (*a*); it is less frequently found (*b*) in appended objects (with a 'provisional' *it*).

1) i. e. to open a conversation on.

a. Mrs. Lazarus was without her orange because she had to wear mittens now, and that made *peeling* difficult.
Walpole, Fort. II ch. I p. 154.

b. You must find it rather dull *living* here all by yourself.
Sweet, Element. p. 80.

88. The relation between the ing as an object and what seems to be its leading verb may be inverted, as in the case of intransitive verbs (84 f.); this makes it possible to use the construction with inanimate subjects.

Does it do any good? — Not now that the ice has stopped *coming*.

Chapin, New Morality, Brit. Pl. p. 538¹⁾.

Look out of the window, it's just started *snowing*.
Collinson p. 32.

We seem to have similar cases in the following quotations, with *help* and *keep*, although *keep* does not take a noun-object in the meaning expressed here²⁾.

Otherwise, it's simply impossible to help *liking* him.
De Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 16 p. 159.

The thought was unpleasant, and it kept *recurring*, but it only served to harden his determination.

Galsworthy, Caravan p. 29.

The great problem of the cotton industry during the war has not been, as in the war industries, to satisfy an unlimited demand under difficulties, but to keep *going* at all.
Times Lit. 9/8, 18.

89. It has already been shown that the ing may be an adverb adjunct qualifying an adjective or a noun expressing a verbal meaning (83d). The adjective is always used predicatively, in other words the ing qualifies the whole

1) Compare ib. p. 539:

I wish to goodness you'd stop boasting about your beastly ice and pour out my tea for me.

2) *To help* can take a noun-object: *I can't help the warts, they will come.*

predicate rather than the adjective (*a*). Sometimes it may be doubtful whether *to be* is to be interpreted as a copula or as a verb of motion (*b*); compare the quotations of 84 *c*.

a. Don't be long *unpacking*. Sinister Street p. 401.

Here he introduced, there he struck out; this he condensed, that he expanded; he was never done substituting a new word or phrase for an old one.

Thomson ed. Robertson p. 24.

She was busy *turning out* papers from an old-fashioned bureau. Wells, Country p. 226.

(Of this critic) it has been wittily said that he is too busy *writing* about Portuguese literature to read it.

Mod. Lang. Rev. XIV p. 346.

Fortunately for them a victim had already been secured, and the brutes were too busy *devouring* him to pay attention to anything else.

Patterson, Tsavo p. 74.

b. When we arrived at Liverpool, we were not long *clearing* our decks of cattle.

Davies, Super-Tramp ch. 10 p. 83.

We have an apparently identical case in this sentence: *Anne, if I meet him down the road, shall I tell him you're ready waiting for him?* Bennett, Anna p. 119; but *waiting* is rather an adjunct to *you*, unless it is interpreted as a free adjunct.

90. The ing as an adjunct to adjectives may have the character of an object, serving to complete rather than to qualify the meaning of the adjective. This is the case with ings accompanying *worth* (*a*). Of a similar character is the ing with *near* and *like* (*b*); but these adjectives can also be interpreted as prepositions.

a. It is worth *looking* at some of the characteristics of classicism.

Penguins are the one thing in the Antarctic worth *going* all the way to see. Times Lit. 2/4, 14.

Everything that Stevenson wrote is worth *reading*; very little that has been written about him is worth even *skimming*. Pilot 26/10, 1901.

b. What he has given us is far nearer *being* a political history of England from 1739. Times Lit. 5/2, 20.

We had the run of the whole liner. It's not like *being* a steerage passenger.

Collinson, Spoken Engl. p. 48.

I certainly do not feel like *looking up* to them.

ib. p. 74.

91. The plain ing is very frequent in free adjuncts. The construction is fully treated in vol. 3 in the chapter on the *Simple Sentence*, so that it will suffice to give some quotations with the plain ing here (*a*), including some connected by means of a conjunction (*b*).

a. She remained outwardly calm, seldom *leaving* the privacy of her own apartments.

Buchanan, That Winter Night ch. 3.

Far away in Palestine General Allenby has won a great victory, *smashing* the Turkish line across the plain of Philistia, and taking Gaza.

Spectator 10/11, 17.

Finding Blanche determined, Father André presently took his leave. Buchanan, That Winter Night ch. 5.

Nearing Joyfields he noted the Mallorings' park, and their long Georgian house.

Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 7 p. 71.

b. One is lifted as it were into a serener air when *pondering* over them. Times Lit. 19/10, 16.

All changes of habit among birds are peculiarly interesting, as *giving* us a brief glimpse in our own lifetime of age-long processes of accommodation. ib. 7/8, 19.

He paused as if *expecting* her to answer.

Buchanan, That Winter Night ch. 2.

Prepositional and Plain Adjuncts **92.** In many cases the ing as an adverb adjunct, whether to a predicative adjective or to a verb, can be connected with a preposition as well as added without any connecting word. The following quotations illustrate the prepositional use with words that have been shown to take the plain adjunct in the preceding sections.

All wore black braided jackets, maroon skirts, hats with plush decorations, and smart boots. It was near to being a uniform. Pett Ridge, Mord Em'ly.

One woman was kept busy in supplying him with material. Bennett, Anna ch. 8 p. 125.

When he ceased from speaking he again put his elbows on his knees.

Trollope, Last Chron. ch. 66 (vol. II p. 239).

But I've done with expecting any course of steady reading from Emma. J. Austen, Emma p. 35.

He kissed her cheek, and departed in great misery, which was several hours in lessening itself to a controllable level. Hardy, Return of the Native III ch. 6.

I lost no time in availing myself of the privilege which he proposed. Hole, Mem. p. 90.

We spend our time in searching for something that is not there. G. Murray, Eng. Lit. and the Classics p. 7.

93. There is generally no difference of meaning attached to the use or absence of the preposition in these adverb adjuncts. The syntactic difference may, however, entail a difference of meaning: the preposition makes the nature of the adverbial relation clear, and this is the reason why it is sometimes indispensable.

Some made themselves busy with matches, and in selecting the driest tufts of furze, others in loosening the bramble bonds which held the faggots together.

Hardy, Native I ch. 3 p. 16.

The omission of *in* would cause the ings to assume the character of free adjuncts; this explains, too, why it would

entail the omission of *and*. In that case the distributive character would disappear, the free adjuncts expressing subordination to the predicate; in other words, there would be one group of people instead of the three groups characterized by their occupations in our text.

Similarly the use of *in* seems necessary in the second quotation of 92, for when *busy* is used with a non-prepositional adjunct it is apt to become subordinate to the *ing*; and that would be entirely out of place here.

We can also make out a difference between *to be* and a word expressing time (*to be long*, *to be a long time*) construed with the plain *ing* or with the prepositional adjunct with *in*. The plain *ing* denotes the period occupied by the action referred to; its aspect is consequently durative (*a*). The prepositional *ing* emphasizes the final outcome of the period, so that it is equivalent to 'It was not long before such and such a thing happened'; its aspect may be called terminative (*b*). Of course it happens not infrequently that the two meanings cannot be distinguished (*c*).

a. "How far is it?"

"Perhaps a quarter of a mile."

"Well, we have been just one hour and three quarters doing it." Cotes, Cinderella ch. 13 p. 153.

He had been an unusually long time coming over the pass. Adelphi, June 1925.

I shan't be long putting my things on.

Collinson, Spoken Engl. p. 38.

b. Dickens's Christmas books were so enormously popular that imitations were not long in making their appearance. Times Lit. 20/12, 1923.

c. Swithin was long in deciding to go forth next day. Galsworthy, Caravan p. 29.

He was not long in imagining the truth.

Eliot, Mill VI ch. 13 (Poutsma V, 372).

The reason for the distinction is not difficult to understand:

the plain ing forms a closer group with *long*, *a long time*, etc. and is apt to become the leading element of it, reducing the other element to an adverb adjunct expressing length of time. This shifting is impossible in the prepositional adjunct with *in*.

It has been shown (90) that *near* when taking a plain ing has the character of a preposition. This explains why the prepositional ing must be used when *near* retains its independent meaning, as in the following sentence.

Five years have passed since that meeting, and we seem no nearer to possessing a National Theatre.

Engl. Rev. July 1913.

94. From the quotations in 81 and 91 we learn that both the plain and the prepositional ing occur in free adjuncts. In this case the preposition has an independent meaning which produces the difference between the two constructions. The plain ing expresses attendant circumstances, which is the natural result of the inherent meaning of the ing as shown in many other constructions. The use of *without* does not change the meaning except in making it negative. When *on* (*upon*) and *after* are used they do not, naturally, change the meaning of the ing itself which expresses attendant circumstances here as well as in the other construction. But the prepositions express the completion of the action or occurrence referred to, so that it is the effect of the action or occurrence after its completion that accompanies the action or occurrence expressed by the predicative verb; the two actions or occurrences are distinctly referred to as succeeding each other with an interval by the use of *after*.

The plain ing, on the other hand, is the only construction possible when it is followed by a clause with *as* (*a*), less frequently *when* (*b*), with repetition of the subject and *to do*

as an auxiliary of substitution. See further volume 3 on Free Adjuncts.

a. We hope this novel dealing as it does with much that is ignoble in politics and politicians will continue
Athenaeum 3/10, 14.

In connection with this church, one of the most beautifully situated in England, standing, as it does, in a lovely fold of the sheep-cropped downs over the Bristol Channel Academy, 5/8, 1905.

The report of 1822, helping as it did to give direction to the energies of the Commissioners, led directly to the chief and most enduring work of his life.

Times Lit. 22/5, 19.

The fourth volume, covering as it does the usual allowance of five plays, now brings the number up to twenty, out of the entire fifty-two.

Athen. 14/12, 12.

b. Late again, my dear; surely going to bed when *you* do, you *might* get up a little earlier¹⁾.

Olive Schreiner, Undine ch. I p. 20.

95. One of the most important functions of the plain ing is its attributive use. In this case it serves as a verbal adjective so that it can be compared with the verbal [id] as far as this is used in the same function. Like the participle (45 ff.), the attributive plain ing can both precede (*a*) and follow (*b*) the noun which it qualifies, with similar results as to the shade of meaning expressed; on this subject the chapter on wordorder in attributive groups in vol. 3 may be consulted.

a. The bomb was, that evening, the dominant note of the occasion. Through the illuminated streets, the slowly surging crowds — inhuman in their abandon to the mono-

1) Italics for *you* and *might* in the original.

tonous ebb and flow as of a *sweeping* river — the cries and laughter and shouting of songs, that note was above all.

Walpole, Fort. II ch. 5 p. 193.

... when man first appeared as a *hunting* and *fishing* savage.

Oman, Engl. Conquest p. 2.

The *seeming* sleeper was thinking of her children, away over there in England.

Galsworthy, Caravan p. 172.

At length he discerned, a long distance in front of him, a *moving* spot, which appeared to be a vehicle, ...

Hardy, Native I ch. 2 p. 9.

... the sporting pictures on the walls, and the long shining row of mugs and coloured plates by the fire-place.

Walpole, Fort. I ch. 1 p. 4.

December came with its dark mornings and steadily *falling* rains.

Waugh, Loom of Youth, III ch. 3.

b. There was not much chance to ship again for two or three weeks, owing to the number of men *waiting*.

Davies, Super-Tramp. ch. 11 p. 93.

The bodies were not those of men *coming* from the city in search of employment ... ib. ch. 13 p. 102 f.

... a tiny bookshelf *containing* some tattered volumes of Reclame's (sic) Universal Bibliothek.

Walpole, Fort. II ch. 3 p. 173.

I believe the frequency of these trips was mainly owing to the friendship *existing* between the two captains.

Davies, Super-Tramp ch. 1 p. 2.

The lilacs and chestnut trees just *crowding* forth in little tufts, close *kernelling* in their blossom, were ruffled back, like a sleeve turned up, and nicked with brown at the corners.

Blackmore, Lorna Doone ch. 17 p. 108.

Mr. Wegg has gone deeply into the life of Antwerp in its various aspects, and his work, though *dealing* with a limited period, is a valuable contribution to civic history.

Times Lit. 15/6, 16.

96. Post-position of the attributive ing is plainly due to the verbal meaning that is to be expressed in the following quotations.

No doubt he had grown to love her (a ship), but she had gone beyond the control of living man, and a score of the best seamen *breathing* could not have made her punctual to her duties.

Davies, Super-Tramp ch. I p. 3.

The halt was but momentary, for the noise resolved itself into the steady bites of two animals *grazing*.

Hardy, Native I ch. 8 p. 86.

"A perfect idiot! Imagine leaving anything out on the line in weather like this... Now my best little Teneriffe-work teacloth is simply in ribbons. *What* is that extraordinary smell? It's the porridge *burning*. Oh, heavens — this wind!" Mansfield, Bliss p. 137.

Adverb or Attributive compared with Free Adjuncts 97. It has been attempted in the preceding sections to distinguish the plain and prepositional ings as adverb adjuncts, attributive adjuncts, and free adjuncts.

This seems to be justified by the form of the constructions as well as by the meanings expressed. We have a free adjunct when the ing precedes the word it may seem to refer to more particularly, although an adverb or attributive adjunct would require post-position in the given case. We also have a free adjunct when it follows the word it may seem to qualify, but is separated from this by a pause which is not the consequence of any other circumstance than its own function in the sentence. Examples of these cases will be found in sections 115 ff.

It may occur, however, that an ing follows its leading word and is separated from it by a pause that is due to other circumstances than the function of the -ing itself. In such a case it may be doubtful whether we have an adverb adjunct (*a*) or attributive adjunct (*b*) or must look upon the ing as a free adjunct. Occasionally, it may even be doubtful which to choose between the three kinds of adjuncts (*c*), especially when there is no break (*d*).

a. You don't know what you miss, Evelyn, not having a flat¹⁾. Cotes, Cinderella, ch. 15 p. 174.

He spent the time, very cheerfully, taking the things out of the black bag and arranging them.

Walpole, Fort. I ch. 12 p. 141.

You gave me quite a shock, telling me like that.
ib. II ch. 5 p. 196.

When I see you at a party, so fresh and lovely, and everybody wondering at you, I have a sort of little thrill because you're mine and afterwards I shall take you home.

W. Somerset Maugham, Circle III, in Brit. Pl. p. 635.

b. But there was Bromley Barnes in the flesh, smiling as usual, and gazing at me in a quizzical sort of way.

George Barton, Mystery of the Red Flame
ch. 17 p. 209.

But that the spirit of intrigue was in him had been shown by a recent romantic habit of his; a habit of going after dark and strolling towards Alderworth, there *looking* at the moon and stars, *looking* at Eustacia's house, and *walking* back at leisure²⁾.

Hardy, Native IV ch. 4 p. 332 f.

A. It can't take all this time to change one's shoes.

B. One can't change one's shoes without powdering one's nose, you know.

W. Somerset Maugham, Circle I, in Brit. Pl. p. 588.

c. When James Forsyte came in again on his way home, the valet, trembling, took his hat and stick.

Galsworthy, Caravan p. 42.

d. I didn't mind it riding but it was rather awkward driving.
Sweet, Spoken English p. 72.

Ing as a Subject 98. The ing is freely used as a subject (*a*), including the appended subject (*b*).

a. Doing one's bit, putting one's shoulder to the wheel,

1) i.e. I advise you to take a flat.

2) The italic ings may be parallel to *going*.

proving the mettle of the women of England, certainly had its agreeable side.

Rose Macaulay, *Potterism* I ch. 3 p. 33.

The fact of the matter was that Peter was so greatly excited by it all that abandoning even Stephen was a minor sorrow. Walpole, *Fort.* I ch. 4 p. 39.

Galileo found that thinking was the road to prison, and Bruno that it was the road to the stake.

Bailey, *Question of Taste* p. 10.

Putting on his black clothes in the morning brought Dawson's back to his mind.

Walpole, *Fort.* I ch. 9 p. 100.

There at any rate things had happened. There had been an air, a spirit. Fighting his father — or at any rate, escaping from his father — had been something vital.

ib. II ch. 4 p. 184.

It was a very old boot and much worn at the heel. Seeing that made Serge notice for the first time that his father's clothes were shabby, out of shape and dusty.

Gilbert Cannan, *Round the Corner*, ch. 11 p. 115.

b. It makes me feel that it's hopeless appealing to you.

Chapin, *New Morality in Brit. Pl.* p. 554.

The sea is pretty rough this morning and it will be fun bathing in the surf. Collinson, *Sp. Engl.* p. 92.

But a little conversation was made out of the scarcity of a great deal, for the persistent optimism of Sally recognised that it was awfully jolly saying nothing on such a lovely evening.

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 38 p. 402.

You know, Peter, it's been most splendid knowing you here. Walpole, *Fort.* I ch. 6 p. 68.

"I'm sure it will be splendid," he said, "and it will be just lovely being with you after all this time."

ib. II ch. 5 p. 201.

It would have been pleasanter and easier attacking later . . . Times W, 12/10, 17.

It has been very charming having you all to myself; but I know Lady Cumnor will be expecting us now.

Gaskell, *Wives* I ch. 11 p. 191.

99. The following quotation is of interest, showing as it does how thin may be the barrier separating the ing as a subject from the ing as a free adjunct.

Seeing this man so merry, I knew that my sensitiveness would soon wear off; and, seeing him so active was a great encouragement^{1).}

Davies, Super-Tramp ch. 20 p. 168.

100. The ing is occasionally used as a nominal predicate in a sentence expressing the identity of subject and predicate (*a*). The construction is less uncommon with the neuter pronoun *it* as a formal subject (*b*). We may here add the ing as a predicative adjunct to an object, rather for the sake of 'completeness' than because it is of frequent occurrence (*c*).

Perhaps the great mistake made by so many *débutantes* and matrons, preparing for their first Court, is imagining that a *grand²⁾ toilette* of this description must necessarily entail great expense.

Daily Mail.

Telling Roger's father is not making it public.

Gaskell, Wives II p. 245.

b. It would not be doing justice to the Lippingtons if I omitted to say that we had prayers.

Cotes, Cinderella ch. 19 p. 212.

Don't say anything more to him; it's throwing words away.

Why, it would really be being unselfish to go away and be happy for a little, because we would come back so much nicer.

The Enchanted April by Elizabeth. T. p. 16.

c. "I call that stretching veracity too far," he said simply.

Cotes, Cinderella ch. 2 p. 23.

¹⁾ The comma after *and* suggests that the writer took what follows for a free adjunct, although it must be a coordinate sentence with *seeing* as its subject.

²⁾ Sic.

For the use of ing in such constructions as *I saw him coming*, see 105 ff.

101. In sentences with the introductory particle *there* the ing is traditionally interpreted as a logical subject; see vol. 3 on *Sentence-Structure*. The construction is found in positive sentences (*a*), but more frequently in negative sentences, both to deny a statement of facts (*b*), and a suggestion of a possibility (*c*).

a. The cattle moved slowly about the fields, and there was harvesting going on.

Benson, *Thread of Gold*, p. 27.

b. There is no affectation of frivolity, no cloaking of earnestness here. Sturge-Henderson p. 33.

There is even here no straining after effect.

Ward, *Dickens* ch. 2, p. 25.

There will be no cheerful shops open on the morrow, no busy hurrying to and fro.

Temple Thurston, *City I* ch. 16.

There can be no mistaking the Doctor's speech.

Whibley, *Thackeray* p. 4.

c. As for tastes, mamma, there is no accounting for them. Trollope, *Framley* ch. 25 p. 248.

There was no doubting the sincerity of the voices.

Kipling, *Stalky* p. 148.

There was hardly any persuading her now to go out for a walk. Gaskell, *Wives II* p. 133.

102. Another case resembling the ing as an appended subject, although in reality it is an adverb adjunct, is illustrated by the following quotation. Note that there is a distinct pause separating the ing from the rest of the sentence. There is no such pause in the quotations of 98*b*, although appended subjects may be separated from the rest of the sentence by a break; see vol. 3.

Gray. Never mind that now. Sydney, get your mother's wraps.

Margaret. Sydney — wait — no.

Gray. Warm things. It's bitter, driving.

Dane, Bill of Divorcement, Brit. Pl. p. 689.

Subject of the Ing

103. The action, occurrence, or state, expressed by the ing most frequently proceeds from what, in a psychological sense, may be called its subject. This subject is not expressed grammatically when it is indicated by the context (the situation). A very few examples will suffice to show this.

She was dressed for going out.

I object to going there.

Asking him for help will be useless; you must do it alone.

On waking, he found himself on the green knoll whence he had first seen the old man of the glen.

W. Irving, Sketch-Book p. 41.

104. In many cases no definite subject is either thought of or expressed grammatically, as in the first part of the quotation of 79: *Hunting, hawking, and shooting were, however, his chief delights*; there is no subject at all, neither definite nor indefinite, in the case of 88: *Look out of the window, it's just started snowing*. An examination of the quotations in sections 75 ff. will show that the case is far less frequent than the ing with a definite subject. The reason is evidently that it is chiefly in general, or 'abstract' statements that no definite subject is thought of.

105. The subject of the ing is often expressed by what may be looked upon as the object of the leading verb, as in this quotation: *At a quarter to nine Sir Hector found her waiting in the dining-room*,

the first down (Mackenzie, Rich Relatives III p. 58). The ing in this sentence must be interpreted as a predicative adjunct to the object, as in the one of 100 c. But the character of the ing is not really and undoubtedly that of a predicative adjunct, as the comparison with the example in 100 c will prove. The reason is that the apparent object and predicative adjunct are really rather a single group qualifying the leading verb; it is necessary, therefore, to distinguish the case quoted here from the one in 100 c, and we shall discuss it under the name of the *object with ing*.

106. The object with ing is very common with three verbs of perception that belong to the language of familiar life: *to feel*, *to hear*, and finally and most frequently of all, *to see*. A few other verbs expressing seeing also take the construction, such as *to watch*, *to perceive*, and the literary *to behold*. It will be observed that the verbs cannot be classified as expressing physical perception, several quotations showing cases of a mental process, as far as this distinction can be carried out.

To feel

Felix felt his heart beating — Clara was not alone in being frightened of this woman.

Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 7 p. 77.

I felt an idiotic persuasion trying to creep into my mind, as it were, that I was in a railway carriage in a train just stopping. Wells, Country p. 148.

Rip now felt a vague apprehension stealing over him.
W. Irving, Sketch-Book p. 39.

To hear

Quinney heard him chuckling as he made his way downstairs. Vachell, Quinneys' p. 197.

I heard her clattering up the kitchen stairs.

Baring-Gould, Swaen I p. 11.

One would like to hear Mr. Brock's subtlety applying itself to this curious inquiry. Times Lit. 18/5, 22.

To see

"What are you going to do, Humphie?" he exclaimed, as he saw Humphrey coming slowly across the room with a great jug of water in his arms.

Montgomery, Misunderstood ch. 4.

Looking up, Hazel could see the sensitive leaves of the cottonwood vibrating beneath the evening breeze.

Vachell, Spragge p. 166.

That is the conviction which we should like to see spreading in all classes, and especially in the working classes.

Star, Sept. 6, 1927.

...; and seeing her living there just as she had been living before he left home, he naturally suspected nothing.

Hardy, Native II ch. 6 p. 174.

Other verbs of seeing

It was very pretty to watch her working for her very life. Blackmore, Lorna Doone ch. 46 p. 318.

Then perceiving Felix coming.... he crossed the pavement. Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 1 p. 16.

We behold sea power exercising its universal sway in the history of both the Hellenic and the Latin races.

Times Ed. S. 23/7, 21.

An analysis of the preceding sentences will easily convince the student that it is not only impossible to look upon the ing in them as a genuine predicative adjunct, but that an interpretation of the preceding noun as an object would be equally wrong.

Sometimes it may be doubtful whether we have a case of the construction dealt with here or a real object qualified by an attributive ing, as in the following sentence.

He looked down at *the ewes beside him fumbling* the hay in the wooden racks with their noses or *chewing* placidly while they watched the lambs scampering gaily among the bins and troughs.

Freeman, Joseph ch. 8 p. 60 f.

We may also hesitate over the interpretation of the ings in the following quotation, though the comma might seem to point to the character of an attributive ing. It even seems doubtful whether the interpunction is in accordance with the real structure of the sentence.

In some passages, which the editor of the Journals preferred to suppress, he covered Lord Granville with his raillery, picturing the Foreign Secretary, *lounging* away his morning at Walmer Castle, *opening* the Times and suddenly *discovering*, to his horror, that Khartoum was still holding out.

Lytton Strachey, Em. Vict. p. 292.

107. The object with ing is also found after a number of other verbs. In these cases it is usually still more difficult to interpret the noun or pronoun that serves as the subject of the ing as a real object. This applies to the construction with the verbs *to find, catch, take, keep, leave, start* (*a*). The construction is also used with a number of verbs that express a kind of movement: *to bring, set, send*, and some others (*b*). An exhaustive list, if possible, would hardly serve any useful purpose. But it may not be superfluous to remind the reader that each sentence should be considered independently: the identity of form covers real, and sometimes important, differences of sentence-structure and of meaning.

a. He found himself hoping that his statement would be laughed at. Meredith, Harrington ch. 34 p. 364.

These are the problems which we find men such as Gentz and Humboldt discussing. Times Lit. 8/4, 20.

At this he would wake up to find the lamp still burning on the table and Dicky's father peering at him from over the top of his spectacles.

Temple Thurston, Antagonists I ch. 1 (T.) p. 13 f.

He even found himself envying those old Treliss days.
Walpole, Fortitude II ch. 4 p. 184.

She never kept a maid sitting up for her¹⁾.

Hichens, Ambition ch. 3 p. 29.

I can't keep the horses waiting: they're a new pair — stood me in three hundred.

Galsworthy, Caravan I p. 2.

He suddenly gripped her hand and wrung it again and again — then he burst away from her, leaving her standing there in the middle of the room.

Walpole, Fort. II ch. 5 p. 200.

A book entitled "Education for Democracy" published last year for Miss Alice Davis by the New York Knickerbocker Press, started the ball rolling.

Times Ed. S. 8/7, 20.

b. That minute's interval had brought the blood beating into her face. Hardy, Madding Crowd ch. 28.

This conversation set me thinking.

Everyman 22/11, 12.

Now, that is not a very marvellous incident; but it set me wondering. Benson, Thread of Gold p. 52.

By a friendly blink that set him a-smiling.

Porcelain Lady ch. 6 p. 107.

(These activities) set the surrounding rabbits curiously watching from hillocks at a safe distance.

Hardy, Native II ch. 1 p. 127.

The mere imagined picture... sent the blood rushing through him. Walpole, Fort. III ch. 3 p. 257.

So instead of running after me with that valuable parcel, they have sent it flying to a friend of mine in Westminster.

Chesterton, Innocence of Father Brown p. 21.

108. With a number of verbs we have apparently the same construction, but it is rather the whole group of noun or pronoun with ing that is the real object. Such

1) Compare also phrases like *to keep the ball rolling*, *to keep the pot boiling*.

verbs are those that express a mental perception: *to conceive, fancy, recollect, remember, imagine* (*a*); and some expressing a feeling: *to hate, like, mind, want* (*b*). We may add the verb *to have* (*c*), which is treated in the chapter on the *Auxiliaries*.

a. Can he conceive Matthew Arnold permitting such a book to be written and published about himself?

... for they could not conceive it being the question of an intelligent man.

Locke, The House of Baltazar ch. 8 p. 97.

He did not feel the slightest tremor of nervousness. He remembered Hunter saying at the end of last term that it was rather ticklish work being captain of the House. Waugh, Loom of Youth ch. 1.

Then she recollected his friend's voice striking in with: "What's that? Gerry Palliser swim! Of course he can't..." De Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 12 p. 120.

We can fancy the elegant brute saying it.

ib. ch. 8 p. 66.

"You don't know Cyril, Sir James, if you fancy him taking any risks — particularly when he's in charge of his ward. He's caution personified."

Stephen McKenna, The Reluctant Lover
ch. 18 p. 284.

Is it possible, one can imagine the future historian demanding, that anyone could have been in those days altogether sane? Masterman, Condition ch. 1 p. 14.

You can't imagine me making love to Muriel, Wister?

Chapin, New Morality, Brit. Pl. p. 544.

You can't imagine yourself going on the way I did, can you? ib. p. 539.

b. Well, he knows I hate him talking about that nasty old town to the baby.

Walpole, Fort. III ch. 8 p. 321.

"Would you mind me coming with you, Mrs. Rouse?" said John suddenly.

Temple Thurston, City I ch. 16 p. 126.

I don't like him behaving like that.

Bennett, Old W. Tale IV ch. 3 § 3.

We don't want the women meddling.

H. Ward, Tressady ch. 3.

She did not want her brother getting mixed up in an oil-strike. Upton Sinclair, Oil XV, IV p. 374.

c. They descended, Chillon saying that they would soon have the mists rising, and must not delay to start on their journey.

Meredith, Amazing Marriage ch. 4 p. 41.

The University has undergraduates other than those whom it lately knew knocking at its door.

Times Ed. S. 22/8, 18.

That's right. We'll soon have it blazing merrily.

Collinson, Spoken Engl. p. 32.

It would be too horrible to have her flatly refusing to do something I told her to do.

Priscilla's Fortnight ch. 17 p. 233.

109. The verbs *to avoid*, *prevent*, *prohibit*, and *stop* can take an object with plain ing, like the preceding verbs (*a*), but also an object with prepositional ing in the same sense (*b*). In accordance with the meaning of the verbs the preposition is *from*. It is clear that the ing in this construction has rather the character of an adverb adjunct, and that the construction has little in common, except formally, with the object with ing as used when a verb of perception such as *to see* is the leading verb.

a. I much regret that my official duties at Crewe House prevent me being present at to-day's gathering.

Lord Northcliffe in Times 23/8, 18.

Though of course Mr. Wister cannot prevent Mrs. Wister proceeding ... Chapin, New Morality, Brit. Pl. p. 577.

Milton spelt a number of words variably to express degrees of emphasis; it is pleasant to think that nothing

need prevent a successor of his doing the same to-morrow, if he ever finds a successor.

B. de Selincourt, *Pomona or the Future of English* p. 71.

... but I certainly did think that the kindness of your nature might prevent you judging an uncontrolled tongue harshly. Hardy, *Madding Crowd* ch. 26 p. 202 f.

Well, it stopped him marrying anyone else. She oughtn't to have let him. — You can't stop a person being fond of you.

Clemence Dane, *Bill of Divorcement*, Brit. Pl. p. 685.

b. But this did not prevent us from maintaining a gimlet eye on the doings of next door.

Kenealy, *Mrs. Grundy* p. 60.

She had wanted him all these years and he had allowed those other people to prevent him from going to her. Walpole, *Fort. I* ch. 7 p. 79.

Among imaginary adventures which prevent children from going to sleep quickly, a medical writer mentions visions of themselves catching enormous fish.

Punch 23/7, 1930 p. 85/1.

Lady Kitty tries to give him a withering look, but she finds it very difficult to prevent herself from smiling.

W. Somerset Maugham, *The Circle III*, Brit. Pl. p. 639.

"Well, I'm not an atom bit sleepy," said Kezia. "But my eyes keep curling up in such a funny sort of way." — She gave a long sigh, and to stop her eyes from curling she shut them. K. Mansfield, *Bliss* p. 10.

110. The constructions are sometimes used with these verbs when any attempt to explain the noun or pronoun as an object is out of the question; in the following cases it is nothing else than the subject of the ing.

a. It is much to be hoped that the Government will not allow any irresponsible or factious opposition to prevent this Bill becoming law. *Observer* 4/12, 21.

b. This view prevents us from treating the poor child as a mere tool for the production of wealth.

Gill, Government and People p. 160.

Nothing could make Sir Christopher so happy as to see a marriage which might be expected to secure the inheritance of Cheverel Manor from getting into the wrong hands. Eliot, Mr. Gilfil's Love-Story ch. IV.

(They) were carefully trying to avoid a rumpus from breaking out. Patterson, Compton, p. 72.

The Board of Agriculture are considering what powers, if any, should be obtained to prevent good farmers from being turned out of their holdings owing to the sale of the property, Times W. 21/12, 17.

The rigid uniformity of the examinations for schools prescribed by Oxford and Cambridge prevents any experiments from being tried or any new method adopted.

Prof. Firth, Hist. IV no. 14 p. 80.

111. The verb *to excuse* is construed both with the object and plain ing (1) and the prepositional ing with *from* or *for* (2). It must be noted that in the former construction the sense may be *to excuse a person for doing a thing*, or *from doing*, i. e. *for not doing, a thing*; of course the situation makes a misunderstanding impossible, at any rate in spoken English.

(1) The vulgarian who says 'Excuse me getting up' (to give a handshake), and his brother who says 'Excuse me not getting up', mean the same thing: 'Excuse my not getting up', or 'Excuse me from getting up.'

Grattan, quoted in Engl. Studies vol. 12 p. 110.

"I'm going to say my prayers in bed to-night." — "No you can't, Lottie." Isabeth was very firm. "God only excuses you saying your prayers in bed if you've got a temperature." K. Mansfield, Bliss p. 16.

(2) I'm going down there this evening; so you must excuse me for hurrying away.

Patterson, Compton, p. 176.

"Excuse me from rising, Miss Lyon," said Felix; "I'm binding up Job's finger." G. Eliot, Felix Holt ch. 22.

112. The alternative of an object with plain ing and with a prepositional ing occurs in other cases. In all of them the ing has the character of an adverb adjunct, as far as the group can be analysed at all.

It is difficult to conceive the circumstances which would justify a soldier of whatever rank he might be disobeying a legal order lawfully given to him.

Times Weekly Ed. 27/3, 1914.

His book contains more than enough to justify the reader in refusing to accept his thesis.

Times Lit. 15/2, 18.

113. In many of the cases when an object with ing is possible there are alternative constructions. Thus the verbs of perception often have an object with plain stem (*I heard him go upstairs*) or an object with stem with *to* (*I hate you to talk like that*). The prepositional object with ing of 106 has its equivalent in the prepositional object with plain stem (see 199 for some examples). And some others, among which are the verbs of perception, *to remember*, *conceive*, as well as *to prevent*, *excuse*, as mentioned in Professor Grattan's observation quoted in 111, take a possessive with ing. A comparison of these alternatives will be possible when each has been dealt with in its proper place. Such a comparison may be expected to make the peculiar character, and meaning, of each of the constructions referred to somewhat clearer; see 384.

The distinction between the cases in 105—7 and those of 108—111 is borne out by the fact that the ing in the former case is always a verb expressing an action or occurrence, and may be a verb expressing a state in the latter group; see 200. It must be added that the prepositional object with ing (see the first quotation of 115) should be distinguished from the plain object with

ing; the prepositional object is syntactically identical here with the prepositional adjuncts.

It may finally be observed that the verbs that take an object with plain ing or with prepositional ing can have their participle used predicatively with the same construction. In most cases the resulting construction presents no peculiar features, as with the verbs of perception and related cases of 105—107 (*a*). It is not so in the case of the verbs of 108—111: these are only occasionally so used, and the construction clearly shows a somewhat different character (*b*).

a. During the whole of the period before the Norman Conquest that distinction can be seen gradually asserting itself.
Constit. Essays p. 276.

How, Henry James may be heard grimly asking, dare you pronounce any opinion whatever upon me?

Times Lit. 8/4, 20.

He had often been observed gazing with marked gravity at a dead flower. Galsworthy, Freeland ch. 11 p. 124.

Medley Lock is now the nearest place to Oxford where the reed warbler can be heard singing.

Günther, Oxford Country p. 33.

Compare the following sentences of a similar structure.

Mr. Shaw has been photographed walking arm-in-arm with two actresses. Punch 1/10, 30 p. 365/2.

The author of a new novel who served for three years in the Guards is reported as saying that he would not do it again for a million pounds.

Punch 1/10, 30 p. 365/1.

b. Dr. Barnard has been prevented by other learned preoccupations from making himself responsible for the revision of the volume.

Medieval History ed. Davis. Preface.

Subject with Ing 114. We have seen that what is grammatically the object in the ing-constructions examined in the preceding sections, is the 'subject' of the ing when we take the term in its psychological sense. It

occurs very often that there is no part of the sentence that can at the same time serve as a subject of the ing. In such cases the noun or pronoun serving as a subject of the ing has no other function, and forms a close syntactic group with the ing. According to the form of the noun or pronoun we distinguish:

- (1) indefinite case (of noun or pronoun) with ing;
- (2) possessive with ing;
- (3) genitive (of noun or pronoun) with ing;
- (4) oblique (form of personal pronoun of the first and third persons) with ing;
- (5) nominative (of personal pronoun of the first and third persons) with ing.

The range of each of these syntactic groups will be described and illustrated. It will then be possible to answer the question why each of them is required in the functions it occupies, and also to deal with the cases when two constructions really or apparently compete with each other.

Indefinite Case with Ing **115.** When the subject of an ing is not indicated or suggested by a part of the sentence that has also another function, it can always be expressed by an indefinite case. It seems unnecessary to mass quotations to prove this statement, but a limited number must be given. The order of the quotations is that of the functions of the ing as enumerated in sections 75 ff.

75. (Prep. adj. and objects to verbs).

You mean to insist upon Betty apologizing personally?
Chapin, New Morality, Brit. Pl. p. 551.

Much excitement was caused in Sandgate Road, Folkestone, yesterday, by a bullock which was being

driven through the town entering a glass and china shop.
Daily Mail 1/10, 1908.

Hurried reading results in the learner forgetting half
of what he reads. Sweet.

In this book he looks forward to Russia more or less
rapidly overcoming the enormous difficulties with which
it is faced. Times Lit. 21/12, 17.

The completeness of the catastrophe pointed to a
mine being the cause. Pilot 16/4, 1904.

Of that time coming he had no doubt¹⁾.
Patterson, Compton p. 187.

76. (Prep. adj. and objects to nouns and adj.).

There is no valid excuse, therefore, for anyone who
has money for investment not buying the Bonds to the
utmost of their ability. Times W. 30/11, 17.

There was a rumour of Martha marrying the son of
a neighbouring farmer. Patterson, Compton, p. 204.

Happily there is no risk of Irishmen becoming altogether,
or even almost, as Englishmen are.

Chambers's Cycl. Eng. Lit. p. IX.

She would never get stout as there was every danger of
Clara doing. Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 31 p. 396.

He could not realise the possibility of any one finding
a difficulty in so small a matter.

Peard, Madame p. 58.

The fact of the higher apes not using their vocal
organs for speech, no doubt depends on their intelligence
not having been sufficiently advanced.

Darwin, in Herrig-Förster p. 619.

Poor child, she's still frightfully upset about her father
going away²⁾, and I want you to comfort her.

Stephen McKenna, Reluctant Lover ch. 13 p. 195.

1) The ing is an adjunct to the syntactic group *have no doubt*, not to
the noun in this group only.

2) The father is going, not gone.

81. (Prep. absolute adjuncts).

Mother whispered to him now and then, not to talk of this or that, because of the children being there.

Blackmore, *Lorna Doone*, ch. 11 p. 72.

Now, with the morning shining round them, come
Young men, and strip their coats
And loose their shirts about their throats.

Binion, *Poems of To-Day* I p. 94.

Just now, with the harvest coming on, everything looks its richest, the apples ripening, the trees almost too green. Galsworthy, *Caravan* p. 281.

No history of English foreign policy can be written without his name filling a large space in it.

Times Lit. 31/10, 1929.

Pitt joined with Prussia to prevent it, and the Prussian armies overawed the Republicans without France daring to intervene. Trevelyan, *British History* p. 43.

They enjoyed a brief popularity for some fifteen years, and then disappeared without their loss being much mourned. Standard, 12/8, 1912.

... any dialectic traces of that race in the fifth or sixth century inscriptions may be ascribed to late-coming visitors, without it being necessary to suppose that the whole region was originally Goidelic.

Oman, *Before Norman Conq.* p. 19.

On Mrs. Shorley telling her husband that at last she had secured a treasure, Mr. Shorley endeavoured to pretend that the phrase had not reached his ears before.

Pett Ridge, *Garland*.

Upon Kate's gentleman friend being left with seven pounds ten to the good, listeners gave a long and deep-drawn sigh of envy. ib.

82. (Conjunctive adjuncts).

Anyhow, that's better than Brown being faced with a suit for breach of promise.

Collinson, *Spoken Engl.* p. 66.

The guard put him and his luggage into a carriage

and then left him with a last word as to Salton being his destination. Walpole, Fort. I ch. 4 p. 44.

I have my doubts as to this being true.

91. (Plain absolute Adjuncts).

He ate improvised meals there at odd times, Charmian acting as cook. Hichens, Ambition, ch. 18 p. 207.

The sea was not visible, but I could hear it on the other side of the belt of firs; and the verandah facing south and being hot and airless, a longing to get into the cool water took hold of me. Eliz. in Rügen.

To Western civilization the Crusades contributed very little, the truth being that there was little to be learned from the Mohammedans in Syria.

Davis, Med. Europe p. 212.

The first parliament of Charles I. met on 17 May, 1625, and was dissolved on 12 August, the Commons protesting. Maitland, Const. Hist. p. 292.

He had a high shining head, from which the hair had mostly departed, what little still remained being of a grizzled auburn. Anstey, Vice Versa ch. 1.

98. (As a subject of the Sentence).

a. Charles, however can poor Linda having it (viz. the smallpox) possibly stop you?

Hutchinson, One Increasing Purpose III
ch. 15 p. 326.

.... she asked, because Peter being here seemed so amusing that for the moment she thought she was seeing a vision.

Bar. Orczy, Pimpernel and Rosemary (T.) p. 193.

b. It was quite ridiculous, said the merpussy¹⁾, people making such a fuss about a few waves.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 36 p. 374.

Now it's not a bit of good you nagging at me, miss.

Mackenzie, Rich Relatives I p. 7.

1) A nickname, on the model of *mermaid*.

It's no earthly use the artist trying to keep himself and his talent in cotton wool in these days.

Hichens, Ambition ch. 30 p. 377.

Mrs. C. says it is nonsense, people going a long journey when they are married¹⁾.

Eliot, Middlemarch III ch. 28 p. 203.

It was no use Virginie venting her wrath upon Humphrey. F. Montgomery, Misunderstood, ch. 9.

It was no use men being angry with them for damaging the links²⁾. Times W. 7/2, 13.

116. It may not be superfluous to illustrate the use of plural nouns or pronouns in -s, in the indefinite case naturally, since the plural in a sibilant does not distinguish cases (*a*). The subject of the ing may also be accompanied by a subordinate clause, thus making the construction rather complicated (*b*). The subject of the ing may also be a clause (*c*).

a. You can always depend upon the costumes and scenery being well done.

Collinson, Spoken Engl. p. 80.

He doesn't believe in parsons standing outside things and only doing soft jobs.

Rose Macaulay, Potterism I ch. 3 p. 25.

The excessive absorption of others' opinions (even the Spectator's) ends in many citizens having no opinions of their own. Letter to the Spectator 14/1, 1928.

The boy must have slept, because he woke suddenly to all the clocks in the house striking midnight.

Walpole, Fort. I ch. 7 p. 83.

See also the third quotation of 109b (*visions of themselves catching enormous fish*).

1) Note the comma here, and its absence in the other quotations.

2) i. e. golf-links.

b. I am directed by the County Licensing Committee to say that there appears to be no objection to the body on behalf of which you write instituting proceedings in the case of Sunday entertainments being held, if they see fit to do so.

Daily News 1912.

c. There is, however, a middle-class prejudice against the possibility of what is ornamental being useful.

Cornhill Mag. Sept. 1912.

117. The ing may also have a formal subject *it* or *there*. The ing is chiefly found here of the verbs *to be* and *to have*; see vol. 3 on *Sentence-Structure*.

This seems to abandon any belief in there being an absolute standard of morality. Athenaeum 14/2, 14.

It is unnecessary to emphasize the lamentable fact of there being so many wounded men on their backs at the present time. Corresp. Times Lit. 27/1, 16.

On his way down to Twickenham Steve was glad at there being no particular debate in the House that night.

Patterson, Compton.

Upon it being announced¹⁾ . . . that there was a deficit of over £ 300, Mr. E. S. Wills . . . intimated that he would give a cheque for the amount. Standard.

The next morning the Jesuit took him to his father's house on the north side of the Strand, where he saw both his father and his brother, it not being the latter's turn in waiting at the Court.

Shorthouse, Inglesant ch. 4 p. 47.

Meanwhile, Martha was more quiet and shorter of words than usual — except when she and Uncle met, there being a strong bond of friendship between them.

Patterson, Stephen Compton, p. 143.

There being no survivors the exact causes which led to the accident will never be known.

Times W. 26/6 '14.

1) This is an example of the complex ing treated in 130.

When a true bill is found (viz. by the grand jury) then there will be a trial, unless indeed the person indicted is not in custody and cannot be apprehended.... But there being an indictment and a prisoner, the trial will go forward. Maitland, Justice and Police p. 139.

118. It has been shown that the indefinite case with ing occurs in most of the functions of a sentence that an ing can occupy. No examples have been quoted of the indefinite case with ing as a plain adverb adjunct (83—90), nor of the construction as a plain attributive adjunct (95 f.) or as a predicative ing as illustrated in 100. The reason is that in all these constructions the subject of the ing is indicated by one of the elements of the sentence, as far as it need be expressed at all.

119. It is sometimes doubtful how a sentence is to be analysed. Thus in the following case: *The chances are about ten to one against Violet living, she's in a critical condition* (Stephen McKenna, Reluctant Lover ch. 17 p. 265) we may call *against Violet living* an adverb adjunct, but this does not make it identical with the adverb adjuncts with a preposition in the other sentences.

In this sentence: *The first thing I can remember was my father teaching me the alphabet* (Mary Lamb in Selected Short Stories II p. 1) we might be inclined to call *my father teaching me* a nominal predicate on formal grounds, but if we consider the meaning intended it must be said to be rather an object with ing to *remember*. We have an apparent object with ing in: *I cannot help my ideas being different from yours and Samantha's* (Vachell, Spragge p. 216), but the noun with *help* in this sense is hardly a genuine object.

Whenever a noun or pronoun in the indefinite case is followed by an ing, there is a possibility of the ing being

an attributive adjunct to the preceding word as well as the leading member of a syntactic group in which the noun or pronoun serves for a subject. In most cases there is no difficulty in deciding, but sentences occur where it may be doubtful which interpretation is the one intended. The following quotations illustrate this: those under *a* may best be interpreted as attributive ings, those under *b* as examples of the indefinite case with ing.

a. Then comes silence, and a consciousness of a policeman musing, and suspecting doors have been left stood open.

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 12 p. 121.

Down one of these (streets) they plunged; Peter was conscious of faces watching them.

Walpole, *Fort.* ch. 5 p. 201.

Once when we were passing through a street in New Orleans, I paused to listen to a woman singing.

Davies, *Super-Tramp* ch. 6 p. 40.

b. I have ... seen many instances of gifted men ruining their chances of getting on in life simply from want of manners. Haldane, *Addresses* p. 113.

She'd¹⁾ go through the lawcourts rather than deny her expression of abhorrence of Jones shopping for my wife! Chapin, *New Morality*, Brit. Pl. p. 580.

It seems impossible decisively to choose between the two interpretations in the following sentence.

Mr. Utterson had been some minutes at his post when he was aware of an odd, light footstep drawing near.

Stevenson, *Jekyll, ed.* Schutt p. 23.

120. The possessive is as freely used as the indefinite case, and in the same functions, except in plain free adjunets. The construction is an alternative to the object with ing in groups with one of

1) *She* is Mrs. Jones.

the verbs of perception and will in 108 for their leading member (*conceive, fancy, recollect, remember, imagine, hate, like, mind*) and the verbs of 109–112 (*to prevent, prohibit, avoid, stop, excuse, justify, etc.*).

75. (Prepos. Adjuncts and objects to verbs).

I thought you were so shocked at my imputing anything like enmity to Muriel.

Chapin, New Morality, Brit. Pl. p. 556.

That's what surprises me in your coming to seek my advice instead of going to the omniscient Cyril.

Stephen McKenna, Reluctant Lover ch. 19 p. 287.

He had been well thrashed by a gentleman who did not approve of his trespassing on his grounds.

Sweet, Element. no. 79.

(The persuasion) that the large, deep rottenness in the British world about them was perhaps in the nature of things and anyhow beyond their altering.

Wells, Joan and Peter ch. 11 § 15.

Have you any objection to my approaching (i. e. if I approach) Violet on the subject¹⁾?

Stephen McKenna, Reluctant Lover ch. 20 p. 298.

76. (Prepos. Adjuncts and Objects to Nouns and Adjectives).

You see, it is some years now since we parted with that land. The talk about its being common²⁾, I am sure, is nonsense, but I cannot really say about the footpath. Pickthall, Larkmeadow, ch. 9.

No mistake at all about its being picturesque over here.

Hichens, Ambition ch. 27 p. 331.

Michael took refuge in a dream of his own fashioning.

Sinister Street p. 254.

Its plot is apparently of his own devising³⁾.

Herford, Shakespeare p. 18.

1) *to have an objection* 'is an indivisible syntactic group, like *to have doubts* (115) so that the ing should be interpreted as an adverb adjunct to this verbal group, not to *objection*.

2) *Common land*, opposite of *private land*.

3) The ing seems to be best interpreted as an adjunct to *plot*.

81. (Prepos. Absolute Adjuncts).

Mr. Bickley might very well have cut down his volumes considerably without our losing very much.

Engl. Hist. Rev. 45 p. 135 (Jan. 1930).

On our knocking, however, the door was instantly thrown open by a Hindu servant. Conan Doyle.

On his ascending the staircase this feeling had deepened.

Patterson, Stephen Compton, p. 97.

Then suddenly, without a word of warning, without my being in the least prepared for it, she chucked me.

English Rev., Sept. 1913.

To their thinking, there is no essential difference between the living and the dead. Times Lit. 25/5, 22.

98. (Subject of the Sentence).

a. His reading had, in these latter years, been slender enough. Walpole, Fort. I ch. 10 p. 113.

Sophia thought: "His coming down is really no excuse for his not writing on Saturday."

Bennett, Old. W. Tale IV ch. 3 § 3.

I was not, as a rule, so appallingly silent with people; and their being earls when they were earls, had made no difference so far.

Cotes, Cinderella ch. 10 p. 115.

b. I think it was very funny his going without saying goodbye to anyone.

W. Somerset Maugham, The Circle III, Brit. Pl. p. 630.

It's funny your being so stupid when your father's so clever. Walpole, Fort. I ch. 5 p. 59.

Something tells me you will not. It was a possibility to me your perhaps coming to live here.

Hutchinson, One Increasing Purpose I ch. 10 p. 61.

It's not a bit of good my apologizing to her this evening. Chapin, New Morality, Brit. Pl. p. 556.

It's awful cheek my saying anything to you at all.

Maugham, The Circle, Brit. Pl. p. 612.

'Look here,' said Michael, 'it's no use my arguing with you.' Mrs. Henry de la Pasture

in Cornhill Magazine, Sept. 1912.

A look of perplexity came into his ruddy little face. He stammered something about indifference to wealth, but I brushed all that aside. He had got to be rich, and it was no good his stammering.

Wells, *First Men in the Moon.*

You are assuming there is a libel. There is no use our discussing the publication if there is no libel.

Lord Justice Vaughan Williams, *Daily News.*

"It was not worth while your going," his wife had said. M. Pickthall, *Larkmeadow.*

It seemed so absurd my rushing back like this.

Hichens, *Ambition* ch. 27 p. 339.

She told him what she knew; what was not the slightest use his contradicting.

Temple Thurston, *City III* ch. 10.

108 (Verbs of mental perception and will).

I remember his coming in to breakfast one day... Walpole, *Fort. III* ch. 2 p. 253.

I remember your being ill, and then, when you were a little older, I remember your asking me all sorts of questions that I couldn't answer.

Cannan, *Corner*, ch. 21 p. 224.

You don't mind my mentioning it?

Cannan, *Corner*, ch. 11 p. 115.

You don't mind my talking to you in this manner. Do you? Patterson, *Stephen Compton.*

Lady Lippington said at once that she hoped we wouldn't mind its not being "a function."

Cotes, *Cinderella* ch. 8 p. 85.

I suppose you think Aunt Maria must be mad, but she thought Jim too cocky. And she hated his going¹⁾ on the stage.

Vachell, *Miss Torrobin's Experiment* (T.) p. 151.

1) i.e. the idea that he would or might go.

109—112. (To prevent, etc.).

If it is enough for us to hear the same speeches and read the same books, there is now nothing to prevent our doing so.

Selincourt, Pomona or the Future of English p. 44.

There was nothing in the world to prevent her making a really brilliant match.

Lytton Strachey, Em. Vict. p. 117.

It was very lonely here for a girl who had had a gay time, and he usen't to like my going into Truro — and at last he even stopped my seeing people in Treliss.

Walpole, Fort. 1 ch. 8 p. 94.

We would¹⁾ have to excuse her getting up, but we would understand somehow that she never did, even when the Prime Minister came to tea.

Cotes, Cinderella ch. 5 p. 49.

Toll the bell in the mulberry tree, and Charlotte will come. You must excuse my getting up.

Mackenzie, Guy and Pauline p. 192.

The cabman sees enough from his raised perch to justify his anticipating this with confidence.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 1 p. 4.

She would not risk their hearing.

Alfred Noyes, The Highwayman.

121. The subject of the ing is in a limited number of cases expressed by the genitive of a noun or pronoun²⁾ denoting a person, or of a noun expressing time. The construction is occasionally found in prepositional adjuncts (*a*), and regularly in adjuncts of the type *a difficulty of his making* (*b*). It is common when the group with ing is the grammatical subject and

1) As *we would* shows, it is indirect speech (*You will excuse me getting up*). And it is perhaps unnecessary to point out that the speaker did not get up; see 111.

2) Not the group-genitive; see vol. 2.

precedes the predicative verb (*c*). It finally occurs in a special type of nominal predicate (*d*).

a. She saw nothing — nothing whatever — in Mr. Fenwick's bringing her mother a beautiful sealskin jacket as a Christmas present..... She saw nothing either in her mother's carrying her present away upstairs, and saying nothing about it till afterwards.

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 6 p. 51.

In talking to that solicitor at the Night Club about George's possibly standing for Parliament, I had naturally taken it that Mr. Jeaffreson would respect my confidences.

F. M. Ford, *The Marsden Case* II ch. 1 p. 140.

I don't remember what he said, but he sort of sneered at Beatrice's keeping her head when he asked her to carry on for the present.

F. Swinnerton, *Summer Storm* T. p. 25.

b. She lay in bed, and her sister administered remedies of the chemist's advising.

Gissing, *The Odd Women* ch. 3.

Fenwick passed up the aisle, dreamily happy in the smell of the incense, beside his bride of yesterday's making. de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 19. p. 180.

The war was not of England's making.

Times Lit. 3/2, 1916.

c. Yet this man's honouring Mr. Smith with a comment looked as if he thought him unlike "most of 'em."

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 1 p. 7.

Why should Laetitia's having left her lips slightly ajar, instead of closing them, have "meant Dr. Vereker?"

ib. ch. 20 p. 200.

Adelaide's being here will spoil everything.

Hichens, *Ambition* ch. 20 p. 236.

A few months earlier Boldwood's forgetting his husbandry would have been as preposterous an idea as a sailor forgetting he was in a ship¹⁾.

Hardy, *Madding Crowd* ch. 38.

1) Note the contrast between *Boldwood's* and *a sailor*.

She hoped that Roger's coming home would set it to rights. Gaskell, Wives I ch. p. 122.

d. That's Dr. Gwynne's doing.

Trollope, Barchester.

It is not quite certain that the examples under *a* represent natural spoken English; as will be shown in the chapter on Literary English, in the Appendix to volume 2, the genitive is frequently used in literary English according to a grammatical theory, but contrary to the structure of Living English.

Oblique with Ing **122.** The subject of the ing may be expressed by the oblique (or absolute) form of a personal pronoun of the first or third person. This construction, the oblique with ing, is often parallel to the indefinite case with ing, but it can only be used in prepositional adjuncts to verbs, nouns, and adjectives (*a*), not in free adjuncts; and in appended subjects (*b*). See 124.

a. My dear girl, I'm much too much of a weathercock, or if you insist on me being heavy, let's say a pendulum . . . Sinister Street p. 619.

"I quite believe it," Pat continued, with one ear for what Amos was telling the agent about him and Steve having been at the Holme Chapel School.

Patterson, Compton p. 175.

By this time he was seriously convinced that there was no hope of him being among the selected six or ten.

Bennett, Roll-Call I ch. 9 § 3.

I don't like the idea of us living in Maggie's house. id. These Twain I ch. 7.

It was the first time that there had even been question of him visiting a private house, except his aunt's, at night. id. Clayhanger II ch. 6 § 4.

My last memory of him alive is of his voice in the stillness of his lamplit room when suddenly he mentioned

my name; he must have become aware of me standing
in the doorway. Wells, Mr. Blettsworthy on
Rampole Island I p. 32.

"Perhaps, though, I oughtn't to say as much as that, because it hasn't gone any further than me promising not to marry anyone else."

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 47 p. 535.

b. Is it any use me writing to him?

Collinson, Spoken Engl. p. 2.

"It's no use us going up till Tony's quiet," said Pauline. Kennedy, Constant Nymph p. 6 f.

No, it's no good them making excuses when I try to make them see things, and no good them saying they are sorry. Hutchinson, One Increasing Purpose

I ch. 8 p. 51.

"Doesn't seem the least use me speaking to her," said Miss Meers. Pett Ridge, Name of Garland, ch. 13, p. 210.

It's no use me staying. Bennett, Leonora ch. 6.

Compare the parallel sentences with the indefinite form *you*.

It's not a bit of use you talking, I shan't wear it again. Bennett, Old W. Tale II ch. 2 § 3 p. 170.

Do come in now. That's no use you goin' on!

M. Pickthall, Larkmeadow, p. 7.

It's no use you pretending you've been uncomfortable, because I know you haven't.

A. Bennett, Grand Babylon Hotel ch. 27 p. 255.

Nominative with Ing 123. The nominative of a personal pronoun of the first or third person can also be used to express the subject of the ing, but this construction is limited to one function, the use in free adjuncts.

... knowing it was our wish that we should receive thirty days, and that the judge was at our pleasure — we being in fact our own judges.

Davies, Super-Tramp ch. 8 p. 61.

Dr. Tempest was also there, the rector of the parish, he being both magistrate and clergyman.

Trollope, *Last. Chron.* ch. 1 p. 68.

Brindle ... gave Steve a warm welcome, then introduced him to his sister, a much younger and very pleasant woman who kept house for him, he being a bachelor.

Patterson, *Stephen Compton* p. 147.

We having occasion to shut up our flat for a month or so, my wife was all for taking our silver round to a Safe Deposit in order to prevent its being stolen.

Punch, 19/2, 13.

The cabmen on the ranks used to say, seeing James Winter passing with the pigtailed daughter of John Winter, she holding his sleeve, dancing by his side so that the pigtail danced too:

"There goes James Winter with his little pal."

Niven, *Porcelain* ch. 1.

The body was buried at Highgate Cemetery, and Steve and Pat followed it there, they and the cousin being the only mourners. Patterson, *Stephen Compton*, p. 217.

When we reached Piccadilly Circus we separated, I finding my way to my lodgings, Lawrence Rivers driving to Arthur Place to make terms with my father.

White, *Strood* p. 82.

124. In the following report of a speech by Mr. J. C. Squire (*Bulletin of the English Association* no. 58, p. 13) it may seem that the nominative with ing is used as the grammatical subject of the sentence. But it is quite likely that the speaker was really imagining that he was using a free adjunct.

When the Master of Wellington was speaking — he being a Master is what brought it back to my mind — I was endeavouring to assess his speech — 'Is this solemn or is it funny?' — and for the life of me I was unable to tell.

Similarly in the following case:

You don't seem to realise, you sleepy old thing, *you being* here with me has got me into a most terrible mess. The Woman Who Stole Everything (T.) p. 39.

Communicated by Dr. F. Karpf,
Engl. Studien, 65 p. 334.

Another quotation (ib.) illustrates the oblique *me* with the *ing* as the subject of the sentence, and opening it:

Me asking for that £ 200 must have upset him.

Bennett, Matador of the Five Towns (T.) p. 319.

125. After describing the forms and range of Retrospect the object with *ing* and the various subject-with-*ing* constructions, we must answer the question what connection there is between the form and the range of each construction. We shall thus be able, too, to understand why in some cases one construction is possible only; why, in others, there is a possibility of choosing between two, e. g. between the object with *ing* and the possessive with *ing* (*I hate him talking like that*, or *his talking*), the indefinite case or the genitive with *ing* (*Peter being here seemed so amusing*, in 115; and *Adelaide's being here will spoil everything*, in 121a), the possessive with *ing* or the oblique with *ing* (*who did not approve of his trespassing*, in 120; and *if you insist on me being heavy*, in 122).

126. In dealing with the object with *ing* it has been shown that in some cases (with verbs of physical perception for instance) the group of noun with *ing* can be analysed as containing a grammatical object and a predicative adjunct. But with verbs of mental perception (*to remember*, etc.) such an analysis is impossible, and we can consider the noun an object with a kind of attributive *ing* qualifying it, as in *I remember my father teaching me the alphabet*. But it is also possible to look upon the *ing* as the leading member and upon the noun or pronoun as the attributive element,

whence: *I remember his teaching me t' e alphabet.* The two constructions are not identical in meaning, naturally, however slight and 'practically' negligible the difference may be. The difference seems to be well brought out by the following quotation; it is a case of a prepositional oblique with ing, but expresses the same meaning: *he must have become aware of me standing in the doorway* (see 119). It would seem impossible to use *my standing* here, because *me* is evidently the leading element in the group. The difference here made is based on a private communication by Professor Grattan, and published in *English Studies* XII p. 110. He also wrote: Thus, 'I remember *him* teaching *me*' = 'I have a mental picture of him in the act of teaching *me*'; whereas 'I remember *his* teaching *me*' = 'I recall the fact that he taught *me*'.

The difference is not restricted to verbs of perception; we seem to have the same distinction in the following quotation.

You'll excuse my going away, I know, Miss Lyon.
But there were the dumplings to see to, and what little
I've got left on my hands now, I like to do well.

George Eliot, *Felix Holt* ch. 22.

In the following sentence the difference between *you* and *your* may be due to chance; but it may also be that *calling me a clog* is treated as a single group because the father's words are repeated, whereas each element has its independence in *mind you calling me a donkey*, which is prospective, with *calling* in a more verbal meaning.

"I'm rather lost in that plan of yours; the details, as you state them, are a little puzzling; but if I make them out rightly, I am to go about the country, like the donkeys on the common, with a clog fastened to my hind leg."

"I don't mind your calling me a clog, if only we were fastened together."

"But I do mind you calling me a donkey," he replied.
Gaskell, *Wives* I ch. 2 p. 40.

The personal pronoun is necessary in the following case because the proclitic character of the possessives makes it impossible for them to be separated from the leading noun by a number of other sentence-elements.

I heard of *you* the other night at Lady Rufford's
dancing till four o'clock in the morning.

O. Wilde, *An Ideal Husband* I.

127. The form of the subject of the ing may also be due to the grammatical function of the ing. Thus when the ing is the subject of the sentence it naturally resembles a noun, and the adjunct to it may consequently take the form of the possessive. The genitive is quite common here too¹⁾, although it finds a competitor in the indefinite case. The reason for this seems to be that the genitive is almost exclusively restricted to personal nouns that are clearly used attributively before the leading noun (see vol. 2 on *Case*). This explains, too, why the possessive is common in the case mentioned in the preceding section, but not the genitive. It is also clear now why the appended subject does not take a genitive for its subject, although it can take a possessive.

It would be a mistake, too, to take for granted that all the possessives are treated in the same way. Thus it is hardly chance that we frequently find *you* in cases when the same author uses *my* or *his*. And it may be significant that Professor Collinson in the passage below transcribes *you* by [jɔ:] i. e. as if it were *your*.

"You resent my being here." — "Resent you being here? I resent you being a damn fool."

Sherriff, *Journey's End*.

What was the cause of you being so late?

Collinson, *Spoken English* p. 12.

1) Especially when the ing precedes the predicate; see the last quotation (from Hardy) on p. 102.

The form of the subject in plain free adjuncts is invariably a nominative or an indefinite case. This is plainly the result of the similarity of this ing to a predicative verb. This relation is no doubt the reason, too, why the nominative (or indefinite case) is always strong stressed in this function and separated from the ing by a slight break, so that each of the two elements of the group retains its independence.

The genitive and the possessive are the only possible forms in some of-adjuncts; it will be found that these adjuncts take a verbal noun in the same way. Thus it is easy to see the parallelism between *a difficulty of their creating* and *a force which is of their creation*. The form of the subject of the ing here must be the result of the nominal character of the ing. This may explain, too, why the genitive with ing is used in the sentences of 121 a, although the indefinite case with ing is the usual construction here (115). For the ings of the first two quotations of 121 express *act of bringing*, *plan of standing*; the third may be an artificial genitive: see the sections on the genitive in literary English in vol. 2.

The Complex Ing

128. Up till now the ings have only been illustrated in groups with nouns or adjectives. If a participle accompanied an ing it was in the function of a verbal adjective.

Wister. I suppose you're surprised to see me back so soon.

Betty. Oh, my dear man, I'm past being surprised at anything¹⁾. Chapin, New Morality, in Brit. Pl. p. 576.

The dazzling consideration was whether it would make the least difference being distantly connected with them by marriage. Cotes, Cinderella ch. 24 p. 251.

1) See 66.

It is also possible for an ing to form a close syntactic group with a participle in a purely verbal sense, as typified in *being seen*, *having seen*, *having been seen*. In these groups the sense is expressed by the participle as modified by the verb in ing, which is a quite subordinate member of the group, and is usually classed as an auxiliary. The meanings expressed by these verbal groups will be treated in the chapter on *Auxiliaries*, but the functions they occupy in the sentence are best treated here; the differences between the simple ing and the *complex* ing, as these groups have been called, help to make the character of each clear.

129. The complex *being* with a participle
 Passive Ing occurs in most of the functions of the simple ing, except with proclitic *a-* (80) and as an object of verbs taking an object with predicative adjunct (87 a). It is rarely used as a grammatical subject or as a nominal predicate; if used attributively, it must follow its leading noun. It is very common in free adjuncts.

Alice. But don't you mind being thought unjust?
 Betty. I prefer it to being thought a fool.

Chapin, New Morality, Brit. Pl. p. 541.

Well, Mother, I hate being hinted at.

Clemence Dane, Bill of Divorcement, Brit. Pl. p. 649.

You see, she doesn't enjoy being hinted at either.
 ib. p. 650.

Possibly she resented being made a fool of before her daughter. Vachell, Quinneys' p. 208.

If we escaped being noticed and punished it was only because Mr. Webb was away at a wedding or funeral most of the time. Sweet, Spoken Engl. p. 52.

The side¹⁾ kept on being altered.

Waugh, Loom of Youth III, ch. 1.

1) The cricket eleven.

By good fortune this trunk had missed being put on board the Wizard Queen.

Mackenzie, *Seven Ages* ch. 2 p. 79.

After that, they tried a smaller hotel where they were fairly comfortable, though Mrs. Gainsborough took a long time to get used to being brought chocolate in the morning.

Mackenzie, *Sylvia* p. 349.

Yes, there was quite a rage at that time for being taken (i. e. photographed) in an artificial snowstorm.

W. Somerset Maugham, *The Circle*, Brit. P. p. 627.

(This plan) came near being realized.

Margoliouth, *Mohammedanism* p. 19.

In the articles now being published Mr. Graham describes his return across Germany into Russia and down to the Caucasus.

Times W. 6/2, 14.

The right thus acquired was grossly abused; but the exercise of it, being expected, created at first but little alarm.

It seems that the author, being called a working-man poet, has written the latter poems as a duty.

130. The passive ing can have its subject expressed in the same way as the simple ing; this construction, too, is frequent in free adjuncts. Examples occur in the last two quotations of 110 *b* and also one in 117.

When the tenant died, his land reverted to the lord, who only granted it to the heir after the payment of a year's revenue, and on condition of the same service being rendered.

Pollard, *History of England* ch. 2 p. 37.

She was not afraid of her drawing-room being seen by anybody.

Bennett, *Old. W. T.* IV ch. 2 § 1.

Someone protested softly against his being given more brandy.

Wells, *Joan and Peter* ch. 13 p. 637.

... a deliriously delightful place, with a shop full of sweets, games without end, friends galore, and a little work now and then to prevent one's being bored.

Walpole, *Fort. I* ch. 4 p. 43.

We having occasion to shut up our flat for a month or so, my wife was all for taking our silver round to a Safe Deposit in order to prevent its being stolen.

Punch, 19/2, 13.

Thus, the nightingale and crow have vocal organs similarly constructed, these being used by the former for diversified song, and by the latter merely for croaking.

Darwin in Herrig-Förster, Brit. Authors p. 619.

The facts being thus made secure, readers are to be left to judge of the inferences on their own merits.

Times Lit. 16/3, 22.

These things being remembered, it will not seem strange that the king should have exercised a power of dispensing with penal statutes.

Maitland, Constit. Hist. p. 303.

It certainly seems to have been the common opinion that the king had a certain ordaining power. Regard being had to the past it was difficult to deny this.

ib. p. 256.

He left China steadily settling down, with the authority of the Central Government steadily growing, with trade everywhere reviving, and with the unwieldy armies of the revolution being gradually disbanded and absorbed in the civil population. Daily Mail.

Should an untidy maid put her hand upon this the marks can easily be removed without any damage being done.

Bibliophile 1909 p. 322.

There was no attempt to answer this question, it being felt probably that it was, like the conventional "How do you do?" one to which an answer is neither desired nor expected. Anstey, Vice Versa ch. IV.

131. We occasionally find the construction used with verbs that generally take an object with participle (60, 1 and 2). The difference between the two constructions is one of aspect: the form with *being* emphasizes the durative aspect of the action referred to by the participle; see the chapter on *Aspect*. The last two quotations of 60a show that the

situation may be sufficient to make the meaning of the simple participle unmistakeable.

She foresaw inquiries being made concerning her.

Bennett, Old W. Tale IV ch. I § 4.

I like to see Lady Diana Duff-Cooper being applauded when she appears in the stalls. Observer, 31/10, 20.

It is true and characteristic that in all the negotiations with Germany during the 'eighties and 'nineties we find a permanent place being taken by Mr. Chamberlain as Colonial Secretary. Times Lit. 25/10, 23.

132. The passive ing is naturally more purely verbal in its character than the simple ing. It is in accordance with this character that the passive ing is hardly ever found in such a nominal function as that of a grammatical subject or nominal predicate, but with great frequency in the most verbal function of the ing, viz. in free adjuncts. It should be noted that this observation agrees with the explanation of the peculiar form of the subject of the ing in free adjuncts (127).

133. The complex ing, being a somewhat clumsy form, is naturally used only when the sense to be expressed makes it necessary. In many cases the simple ing is used to convey the same meaning if the context makes this evident.

The simple ing is used when the idea of the agent is quite as prominent in the speaker's mind as the action performed.

Naturally, there were experiences on the way, and they do not lose in the telling.

Athen. 1/10, 11 p. 419/1.

Some arrangements must have been made between the Doctor and my Mother about my furbishing up for Penguin's. De Morgan, Vance ch. II.

He felt that if the town had been aware of his jilting,
he could not have borne the humiliation.

Bennett, Clayhanger III ch. 1 § 2.

The want of a national Army which is still only in
the forming. Times W. 16/10, 14.

The difference between the two constructions is well
brought out by the following pair of quotations.

In view of the prestige and power possessed by
Carthage, the victory of Rome is remarkable, and its
causes worth considering. Goodspeed, History.

As he examined the businesses of his clients he
discovered in himself the flair for putting his finger
infallibly on weak spots, on wasteful methods, on over-
lappings, on neglected possibilities. This was worth, he
saw, being paid for. There was a profession in this.

Hutchinson, One Increasing Purpose I ch. 7 p. 43.

134. The simple *ing* is frequently used as an adjunct
or object to verbs when the meaning is clearly that of
an action performed, not that of an agent performing it.
Such verbs are *to deserve, need, require, want* (when
meaning 'to need'), *to bear* (especially in negative and
interrogative sentences).

If I were such a consummate ass as that, I should
deserve hanging. F. C. Philips, Mrs. Bowerie p. 86.

Some of her conclusions need filling out, and some
correcting. Times Lit. 30/4, 14.

Though its tactics seem rough and have led to
excessively violent scenes, its speakers have said many
things that required saying. Times W. 28/12, 17.

Something had depressed Londell; he wanted rousing.
Punch 31/3, 15.

She wants stirring up, that's what your sister wants.
Bennett, Old W. Tale IV ch. 3 § 2.

John expelled from his mind all misgivings about
Hugh, hoped it would be a fine day to-morrow so that

he could really look round the garden and see what plants wanted ordering.

Mackenzie, Guy and Pauline ch. 3.

There is much in Victor Hugo that will bear skipping.
Bennett, Hilda Lessways.

135. The simple ing is also usual in *of*-adjuncts (*a*), in plain adjuncts to *worth* (*b*) and in adjuncts with the prepositions *beyond* and *past* (*c*).

a. There is not in my possession one single note of his writing. Hole, Memories p. 89.

Helen Waddell has been given a silver medal by the Royal Society of Literature for her book *The Wandering Scholars*. These medals are of irregular awarding.

Constable's Monthly List, June 1928.

b. All the essays in this volume were worth reprinting.

c. He was worried beyond describing by his own particular followers. Wells, Country p. 225.

He is past praying for.

136. The use of the simple ing in the object-with-ing construction in the following sentence is dialectal; it is quite exceptional in standard English, whether spoken or written.

"Now, mater," said Cyril, "it's a pity you don't want that cake cutting into."

Bennett, Old W. Tale IV ch. 3 § 3 p. 494.

137. The second of the complex ings, the Perfect Ing type *having seen*, may be called the perfect ing. Its meaning is treated together with the other groups of *to have* with a participle (see the chapter on the *Auxiliaries*). Its functions in the sentence are parallel to those of the passive ing, so that it seems sufficient to give a number of examples both of the ing without a subject of its own (*a*) and the ing with a subject (*b*).

a. I'm not exactly proud of having done it, though.
Chapin, *New Morality*, Brit. Pl. p. 547.

Let us be sure that there is something more than mere interest and entertainment in a book which so wise a man as Jowett confessed to having read fifty times.
Bailey, Johnson.

She blamed herself for having been a dull companion.
Phillpotts, *Beacon* I ch. 8 p. 72.

He makes no pretence of having incurred any danger or suffered what we should to-day regard as hardship.
Times Lit. 29/6, 16.

He had started before daybreak and his wife was terribly cut up at his having left her when she (his wife) was ill. Olive Schreiner, *Undine*, ch. 7 p. 96.

And seeing Nedda's smile, for the girl recollects perfectly having admired it during dinner at Uncle John's... Galsworthy, *Freelands*, ch. 26 p. 320.

I feel it as a very high honour, having succeeded dear Papa after an interval of so many years.

Prince of Wales to Queen Victoria,
Engl. 19th Cent. II p. 2.

Having had his own way for innumerable years, he had earned a prescriptive right to it.

Galsworthy, *Man of Property* ch. 1.

They are equally loth to draw the sword, but, having drawn it, they are equally resolved not to sheathe it until its work is done. Times W. 3/5, 18.

Having found a pretext for making the expedition, he found another for making it in the guise of a Turkish peasant, thus establishing himself firmly in our affections.

Times Lit. 29/6, 16.

b. I'm beginning to think she'll never get on as a schoolmistress, though why she shouldn't I'm sure I don't know; for she's an 'uncommonly pretty woman for her age, and her having lived in our family, and your having had her so often with you, ought to go a good way.' Gaskell, *Wives* I ch. 8 p. 141.

Probably it had come out of one of the old books for which he had shown such a fondness, he having always had "a habit of reading." Patterson, *Compton*, p. 1.

Aunt Charlotte having been, in her day, a busy manufacturer of trouble, the world might well express relief at her departure. Pett Ridge, Garland.

But we shall waste no sympathy on her, she having snapped at the Court physician.

Snaith, Principal Girl.

Perfect Passive Ing 138. The type *having been seen*, the perfect passive ing, is a very clumsy form and little used in colloquial English. In the written language, however, it is often found convenient.

As for Paul he was perfectly furious at having been so outwitted and overreached.

Anstey, *Vice Versa* ch. 2.

Having been brought up with Graham helped, I suppose, to account for it. Cotes, *Cinderella* ch. 10 p. 116.

Mr. J. E. C. Bodley writes to the *Westminster Gazette* to say that our paragraph about Sir James Murray having been elected a Foreign Member of the French Academy is wrong.

Some of this hospital party has not yet reported itself, but rumours of parts of it having been seen at different places keep on arriving. Times W. 9/11, 17.

Whatever may be our opinions as to the technical merits of this legislation there can be no two opinions about its promoters having been animated by a spirit of patriotism and enlightenment.

Cambridge Legal Essays (1926) p. 40.

The treaty having been settled with the Scots, and the writs issued for a new Parliament, the King returned to London. Shorthouse, *Inglesant* ch. 6 p. 71.

The conference in Dublin between employers and trade union officials has been adjourned until Monday next, no settlement having been reached.

Times W. 12/9, 13.

Mr. Povey was playing a hymn tune on the harmonium, it having been decided that no one should go to chapel.

Bennett, *Old W. Tale II* ch. 2 § 2 p. 162.

Meaning of the Complete Verbal Ing

139. It has been stated (73) that the ing is of a partly inflectional, partly derivative character. The suffix as far as used in the latter function will be treated in the sections on the formation of nouns and adjectives in volume 3; but it is hardly necessary to observe that the delimitation of the two functions, when not indicated by grammatical means, must often be doubtful. We have clearly an inflectional form when the ing is accompanied by adjuncts that a noun or adjective cannot take; many of the sections that precede will supply examples of this. We have clearly a derivative ing when it is accompanied by adjuncts that do not occur except in the case of nouns or adjectives, as will be shown in the chapter on *Word-formation*.

But it occurs not infrequently that an ing has completely the construction of a noun, taking a defining or an anaphoric article, a demonstrative or a possessive pronoun, although its meaning is plainly that of a verb, i. e. a process is expressed, not a state.

1. The getting of Sophia's ticket to Bursley occupied them next. Bennett, Old W. Tale IV ch. 2 § 1.

2. He tells us that it was by reading Napier's 'Peninsular War' that he was introduced to a new world of thought and mentally equipped for the writing of his earliest book, which dealt with the naval operations in 'The Gulf and Island Waters' during the Civil War.
Athenaeum.

3. He has given repeated proofs of his desire to reform the political institutions of China by the gradual building up of a new structure of representative government.
Times W. 23/5, 13.

4. Of the making of books about Stevenson there is literally no end. Athenaeum.

5. A vast amount of research and of hard thinking must have gone to the making of Prof. Graves's 'History of Education in Modern Times'. Athenaeum.

6. The whole air, that quiet afternoon, seemed full of the calling of forgotten voices, and dead faces looked out from the closed lattices.

Benson, Thread of Gold, p. 13.

7. He thought the marking of coins a mean trick.

Bennett, Old W. T. II ch. 4 § 3.

8. The fact remains that the teaching of the art of writing in the vast majority of English schools is either casual or unconscious, and that the results of our system are lamentable. [teaching is here *system* of t., not the act of t.].

Hartog, Writing of English.

9. There is no doubt that this barrenness and naked appearance is the result of the perpetual cutting of heath and gorse, and the removal of the thin surface soil for fuel.

Hudson, Hampshire Days ch. 2 p. 29.

10. The finishing of his book left the way clear for a number of things to attack his mind.

Walpole, Fortitude II ch. 2 p. 163.

11. Young Peter spent his days in preparation for the swift coming of Easter Wednesday. ib. I ch. 10 p. 111.

12. Suddenly one was leaving behind all those known paths and views, so dimly commonplace in the having of them, so rosily romantic in the tragic wanting of them.

ib. I ch. 4 p. 41.

13. . . . the morning was fresh and made them feel that life, though it might mean small finds and hard work, was a pleasant thing and worth the having.

Olive Schreiner, Undine ch. 19 p. 244.

14. He was some kind of poor workingman, and you could see he was unhappy over this arguing.

Upton Sinclair, Oil II ch. 7 p. 40.

15. Secondly because of the profusion of his imagery and the extraordinarily keen sense for beauty and sweetness that went to its making. Mair, English Lit. p. 47.

16. Lastly, in this connexion, we may refer to the influence which the mind has upon its (i. e. the body's) sleeping and its waking.

Laird, Our Minds and Their Bodies p. 18 f.

140. It also frequently happens that an ing is accompanied by adjuncts that are peculiar to verbs and by others that are characteristic of nouns, as in *the significance of this leaving the land of their birth*. This apparent anomaly is the result of an ing with its adjunets (of a verbal character) being taken as a syntactic group that is equivalent to a noun and taking the adjuncts accordingly. This is illustrated by the following quotations.

1. "The reason for what?"

"For your never coming." Wharton, Mirth p. 5.

2. Thus the Church of England was, as the reign of Elizabeth advanced, gradually strengthened by the rallying to her side those who, in the first years of the "Settlement," were sympathisers with Rome.

Spence, Hist. Eng. Church p. 177.

3. All that she could do would be to tell her uncle so much as it was fitting that he should know. The doing this would doubtless be in some degree difficult.

Trollope, Dr. Thorne ch. 30 p. 321.

4. It is, however, indisputable, that those Greek scholars who first taught Greek in Italy found that what was demanded at their hands was not so much the teaching of the language as the making known its thought — and hence the appearance of numerous translations.

Edinburgh Review, Oct. 1905.

5. The enormous outlay absolutely necessary for the carrying out these many costly religious works.

Spence, History of the English Church.

6. In the last example the pluperfect is justified by the fact that the going for a walk preceded *seeing the donkey* and it is used here because the seeing the donkey is the really important event, to which the pluperfect makes it subordinate. (The sentence referred to was: *he told them he had gone for a little walk, and saw a donkey*). Sweet, Grammar.

7. The significance of this leaving the land of their birth and of this crossing of the frontier means nothing to them.

Academy.

8. But with Peter, if you take him from that first asking Mrs. Trussit (swinging his short legs from the table and diving into the mixed biscuit tin), "Is it, Mrs. Trussit, like David Copperfield?" . . . to his meeting of her again . . . Walpole, *Fortitude I* ch. 6 p. 61.

9. The having such a time to look back to in the future was quite as much as one general practitioner, with a duty to his mother, could in reason expect.

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 38 p. 404 f.

10. Her overwrought mind shut away this question — almost in the asking it — with "Dearer to me, . . ." ib. ch. 9 p. 88.

11. I haven't over-estimated this making a tame poodle of yourself for Muriel to teach tricks to.

Chapin, *New Morality*, in *Brit. Pl.* p. 567.

12. But Aunt Cuckoo gets Ideas into her head. This turning Roman Catholic, this adopting a baby, this packing you off to poor old Uncle Matthew. Ideas!

Mackenzie, *Rich Relatives* ch. 7 p. 176.

141. When we compare the quotations of 139 f. it may seem that the two constructions are identical in meaning. For if in the first two sentences of 139 we substitute *getting Sophia's ticket* (or *The getting Sophia's ticket*) and *the reading of Napier's book*, the meaning does not seem to be really affected. But observations of this kind are of no value in syntax: it is not the cases when two constructions are identical that can teach us their true character, but the cases when only one of the two is possible. And the quotations of 139 and 140 have been given so liberally in order to illustrate this fact, and to encourage the student to collect others which may contribute towards a complete analysis of the differences between the two constructions. All that can be done here is to point out some of the most striking of these differences.

When we take the example of 139, 3 and try the alternative construction (*by gradually building up*), it is imme-

diately evident that such a substitution would be impossible: *the gradual building up* does not express a simple action, but rather means 'method of building up.' The quotations of 139, 8 and 9 are very similar.

In the sentence of 139, 10 the meaning is that the book is finished; the alternative *Finishing his book* would have expressed something else: that he was finishing his book.

In the construction of 140 the ing with its verbal adjuncts is defined or qualified by a nominal adjunct. The contrast in this respect with 139 is very clear in the first sentence of 140, but also in no. 6; negatively the same is proved by 139, 7: *the marking coins* would be absurd, because the idea 'coins' (it is a case of discovering a thief by marking the coins in the till) is the subject of the conversation, so that it is the *marking* only that the boyculprit pretends to object to¹⁾.

In 140, 7 we have a case of anaphoric *this*, showing that the idea *leaving the land of their birth* has been mentioned in what precedes, and is considered as a whole, not *leaving* alone. The same applies to several examples with anaphoric *the*, as in 140, 3, 6 and 10. Also with affective *this*, as in 140, 11 f.

It may also occur that the purely nominal construction of 139 must be used because the *of*-adjunct expresses the subject of the ing, as in 139, 6 and 11. The alternative here would be an indefinite case with ing (*full of forgotten voices calling, for Easter Wednesday coming*): apart from other objections which the reader will easily supply himself the result would be ambiguous, for the ing in these last two constructions might, and would even probably, be taken for an attributive ing qualifying the preceding noun.

1) The article before the ing is anaphoric, not defining.

142. In some of the quotations of 139 f. the ing is preceded by a possessive, as in 139, 15 f. and nos. 1 and 8 of 140. Looked at superficially, these examples may seem identical with those of the possessive with ing illustrated in 120 ff. On closer inspection, however, it will soon be discovered that the ing in 120 ff. is distinctly verbal, requiring a subject of its own, whereas the sentences in 139 f. referred to show nouns with a possessive as an attributive adjunct. The last can also be said of the genitive preceding the ing in this example:

Another stirring passage describes Ney's crossing the Dnieper. Athenaeum, 14/9, 1912.

The use of *Ney's* instead of the indefinite case *Ney* would be contrary to living usage if we really had a subject with *ing* here, see 121. But the substitution of *Ney* would completely change the sense: the form *Ney's*, bringing out as it does the nominal character of *crossing*, causes it to mean 'manner of crossing', not 'the act of crossing'.

143. When the ing takes a plural suffix it may be called a noun, and a derivative formation, although this does not prevent it from expressing a verbal meaning.

These list slippers were the immediate cause to important happenings in St. Luke's Square.

Bennett, Old Wives' Tale IV ch. 3 § 1.

Naturally with so much of her attention fixed upon the raps downstairs Sylvia began to fancy renewed rappings all round her in the darkness, and not merely rappings, but all sorts of nocturnal shufflings and scrapings and whisperings and scratchings, until she had to relight her candle. Mackenzie, Sylvia and Michael p. 55.

144. It may be worth observing that in all the cases of *ings* that waver more or less between a noun- and a verb-character we have met with the simple *ing* only.

The reason is that the complex ing is naturally of a more decidedly verbal nature.

Another point that might be worth a special examination, which would, however, require more space than can be given to it in a handbook, is the *grammatical function* of the ing in a sentence as an element deciding its noun- or verb-character. It is evident, for example, that an ing that is used as a grammatical subject or nominal predicate of a sentence is by that very circumstance more nominal than an ing that is used as the leading element of a related, still more of an absolute, free adjunct.

Occasional Ings

145. What has been said of the ings that form part of a complete verbal system does not necessarily apply to occasional formations, often nonce-words, that do not form part of any verbal system, and are, indeed, generally connected with or derived from other than verbs. These occasional ings are never used in a complex form, nor are they found as elements of a subject-with-ing construction. They are almost exclusively used as adjuncts and as plain objects¹⁾.

For on the previous evening, Sally being out musicking,
and expected home late, . . .

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 14 p. 131.

Fiddlers are not Baronets, but anything is better than
haberdashing. ib. ch. 47 p. 521 f.

Sam (accepting the sarcasm with a foolish smile).
Well, well.

Nancy (sharply). I don't see that there's any need
for so much well-welling.

Bennett, *Milestones II*, Brit. Pl. p. 57.

If you'd only make me see instead of you-seeing me
all the time. Clemence Dane, *Bill of Divorcement*,
Brit. Pl. p. 656.

1) See Karpf, *Neuere Sprachen* 35 p. 551.

146. In some cases a verbal ing has other verbal forms, but these may be so exceptional as to be felt as back-formations from the ing rather than as the base from which the ing has been formed. A strict classification, besides being of no value, would be impossible because in cases like this there are individual differences. Thus, a form in ing may be an isolated form to most speakers, but, if a technical term, it may be part of a complete verbal system to experts: *homing shopgirls* (Niven, Porcelain Lady) is an adaptation of the technical *homing pigeons*, and an occasional and isolated ing to most people, but the verb *to home* will be familiar to breeders of these pigeons.

Similarly, in the following quotation, *Too much finessing would be wanted; too many reserves* (de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 20 p. 193) we may be right in looking upon *finessing* as a form derived from the noun *finesse*, but the author also uses the verb *finesse*, whether directly from the noun, or as a back-formation from the ing, so that to him the ing is, or may be, part of a complete system.

I shall have to finesse a good deal. ib. ch. 36 p. 384.

He was one of those useful people who never finesse, who let you know point-blank where you are. ib. ch. 6 p. 52.

147. The following instances seem to be more or less occasional; the last being an evident nonce-word.

She liked ... coming to look at them fishing or rabbiting.

We have been cowslapping to-day in a little wood dignified by the name of the Hirschwald. Elizabeth.

I should not like to see you two going off governessing in strangers' houses. Gissing, *New Grub Street*.

The wayside brambles were fruiting.

She could perfectly well stop him if she chose, and she didn't choose.

Stop him *whatting?* asked Sally perplexingly.

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 6 p. 54.

148. An occasional ing may be exclusively used as an attributive plain adjunct so as to resemble an adjective, except that it has a distinctly verbal meaning.

The black soil of the hillside field glistened coldly in the meagre rays of the westerling sun which were all that it caught of warmth and light during the day ..

Freeman, Joseph and his Brethren, p. 1.

Compound Ings

149. The compound ing may be formed from a non-verbal group: *bird's-nesting*, *blackberrying*. These ings are derivatives from compound nouns or groups: *bird's nest*, *blackberry*; and should be classed with such ings as *nutting*. They are used very much like the usual ing except that they do not generally occur in complex ings.

(He) used sometimes in the middle of the morning's work to ask Peter how much he weighed, whether he had ever considered taking up prize-fighting as a profession, and how much he measured across the chest.

Walpole, Fort. I ch. 7 p. 78.

(It) had a half-fearful fascination for the Raveloe boys, who would often leave off their nutting or bird's-nesting to peep in at the window of the stone cottage.

George Eliot, Silas Marnér ch. 1.

150. A very different type of compound in living English is that of a noun with a verbal ing, the noun expressing the object or adverb adjunct to the ing; its character is exactly similar to that of the compound nouns in -er; compare *dress-making* and *dress-maker*. These compound ings are used as nouns (*a*) or as adjectives (*b*), not in both functions. They are essentially different from the verbal ings.

a. They seem to have known nothing of cultivation or of domestication of animals or of pottery making or of stone grinding. Fleure, Races of Man p. 15.

... all about dogs, cats, rabbits, pigeon-shooting, bird's-nesting, and weasel-hunting with his rough grey terrier Snap. Sweet, Primer of Spoken English p. 50.

The ground chosen for lavender growing should slope a little to the south or south-west. Daily Mail.

After a good month's work at the strawberries, we had three weeks at picking raspberries, followed by four weeks blackberry-picking. Davies, Super-Tramp ch. 9 p. 70.

b. It's a labour-saving device of mine.

Chapin, New Morality, Brit. Pl. p. 563.

... many gold-bearing rivers.

Massingham, Pre-Roman Britain p. 34.

I hate people when they keep up an ear-splitting chatter all the time. Punch's Almanack for 1931.

See the chapter on *Composition* in volume 3.

151. A third type of compound ing is formed from combinations of verbs with adverbs, such as *to bring up*. These compounds have a regular ing that forms part of the whole verbal system: *bringing up*. By the side of this form, however, there is a form that is used as a noun or as an adjective, like the formations in 143 f.; such a form is *upbringing*, used as a noun.

Poutsma, *Gerund* (p. 110) instances: *the troubles and storms of Hester's bringing-up*, *the subject of his daughter's upbringing*. The ing-form is distinctly nominal here, and this is probably the cause of the form *upbringing* by the side of *bringing-up*.

The compounds are used adjectively in the following sentences.

Saxon graves of the pagan period give us a good deal of information concerning the social life and culture of the incoming race, but not definite history.

Oman; Engl. Norman Conquest p. 188.

... the last good influence in the lives of downgoing men. Stevenson, Dr. Jekyll.

152. The two last types of compound ing described in 150 f., though verbal in so far as they express an action or occurrence, are only used as nouns or adjectives; they naturally never form part of a subject with ing, nor are they found in such a purely verbal function as that of a free adjunct.

It must also be noted that the forms, being derivative, cannot be freely formed and depend upon usage. Formations of the first type are extremely common (*letter-writing*, *book-keeping*, *horse-breeding*, *house-hunting*, *school-keeping*, *home-coming*, etc.), but it would be impossible to use it in order to express *writing poems*, *exchanging glances*, *paying bills*, *mending socks*, *posting parcels*. It should also be remembered that the first element of compounds like *weasel-hunting* is taken in a general or collective sense; it would be impossible to use the type when the noun is taken in an individual sense, whether singular or plural.

Verbal [iz]

153. The regular verb has a form with the suffix [iz, z, s], which is the only verbal form that is exclusively used predicatively. The verbs that do not take the suffix, such as *can* and *shall*, are such as are always used as subordinate members of a predicative verbal group, and cannot be used as independent verbs. The connection between these two facts is clearly shown by such verbs as *to dare* and *to need*, which take the suffix when they are used predicatively as independent verbs, but are used in the plain stem when part of a verbal group (*He daren't come*).

The verbal [iz] is generally called the third person singular of the present tense, the other 'forms' of the present tense being the unchanged stem. The only verb that has a real present tense is the verb *to be*; this present tense, it may be added, is a suppletive system, with special forms

for the first person singular, and a form *are* that is distinct from the stem, so that it possesses three distinctive present forms¹⁾.

154. The traditional term *present* tense has been retained here, although its usefulness is very doubtful in English. The forms called by that name do not really express present time, except in so far that they do not denote an action, state, or occurrence belonging to a time that is thought of as distinctly separated from the present time, and either past, or future. Its most characteristic use is perhaps when no time is thought of at all (*neutral present*).

We can leap, and run, and whistle when we choose. When we are tired we can force ourselves to an increased effort for a sufficient purpose. And so forth. Other voluntary movements, therefore, furnish the clearest *prima facie* evidence of the influence of our minds upon our bodies. They do not, however, exhaust this testimony, and so it is necessary to consider other and more complicated instances.

Laird, Our Minds and Their Bodies p. 17.

Plants breathe just as well as we do.

Nobody remembers how he learned to talk.

Some birds build their nests in trees, others on the ground.

155. The neutral present is to be distinguished from the *iterative present* (a), although the distinction is not always strictly applicable (b).

a. He goes to Germany once a year.

b. Commonly, when a man acquires wealth and establishes a family he begins to inquire into his ancestry. Satirists assure us that he seldom scruples to make desire

1) On the use of the third person as a form of address, see the sections on the use of the personal pronouns of the third person.

serve for fact in the weak links of a distinguished descent. The same foible of human nature is manifest in nations when they rise to power.

Times Lit. 14/11, 1929 p. 905.

156. The present tense is also used to refer to what is loosely thought of as belonging to the present (*actual present*), as in the following quotations.

The official statement from Sofia which we publish elsewhere¹⁾ confirms the good news that an armistice has been concluded. Times W. 6/12, 12.

People from the Provinces coming into Tokyo report that appalling loss of life and damage to property have been caused by the typhoon. ib. 4/10, 12.

157. The verbal forms in the preceding section, though undoubtedly referring to the present time, are concerned with occurrences that are connected with the past; this explains why the perfect would be possible in both cases. Occasionally the time referred to is even more distinctly thought of as connected with the past, so that the present comes to have a function that would seem to require a perfect with *have*. This case is naturally found (*a*) when the verb is *to be* with a participle or a participial adjective like *dead* or *extinct* (see 65), but also in other cases (*b*). Observe that in all the cases quoted it is a state, not an action or occurrence that is expressed. The use may be called the *present-perfect*²⁾.

a. The Town and Gown rows³⁾ which used to provide so attractive a picture for the novelist are extinct and forgotten these last ten years.

Godley, Aspects of Modern Oxford p. 35.

1) i. e. in another column of this paper.

2) To be distinguished from the *perfect-present* (as *I have got*).

3) i. e. the rows (fights) between the townsmen and the undergraduates.

The fight has been fought, and the ominous apprehensions of the timid are long since forgotten.

Magnus, Primer, p. 158.

"And you were early left, I understand?" —

"Early left? Oh dear, yes," she said briskly. "He is dead these forty years." —

W. P. Wilcox, *Wings of Desire*, p. 200.

b. I believe they are an old French family — de Polairet — but they are so long in England — they have become Parret. Barrie, *A Rolling Stone*, p. 47.

"Time Lady May *did* call," said Susan. "We are here seven months." ib. p. 96.

"Did you ever see any scalping, or anything horrible yourself, my dear?" . . .

"Oh no, Miss Tarlton, all that is over long ago. The Indians are in the reservations now."

Humphrey Ward, *Daphne*.

For Mr. Swinburne's style becomes of late more and more provocative. Academy 20/12, 1902.

And what is Rosabel doing with herself lately?

J. O. Hobbes, *A Serious Wooing* (T.) p. 7.

In this connection attention may be drawn to the present *I hear* in the sense of 'I have heard, I have been told'.

158. The present tense can also be used to express what is exclusively and distinctly thought of as concerning the present time. The use is limited to a comparatively small number of verbs, such as *to feel*, *to see*, and other verbs of perception; for the further discussion of the phenomenon the reader may be referred to the chapter on the progressive.

I quite realize how greatly disappointed you are at his desertion.

I feel rather tired after my walk.

Sweet, Element. no. 63.

I see now what you mean.

Do you see those chimneys to the left of the tower?
He lives in a small town in the West of England.

A good many verbs are rarely used in the simple (i. e. non-progressive) actual present at all; such verbs are *to persuade*, *to acclaim*, *to fish*, etc.

There are also verbs that rarely occur, if at all, in either the simple or the progressive actual present; such a verb is *to ascertain*, and other purely perfective verbs.

159. It is not always easy, or even possible, to distinguish between the actual and the neutral present. In the following quotation the present time is not specially mentioned or thought of; yet it seems best to interpret the present tenses as actual rather than as neutral presents.

The Five Towns seem to cling together for safety. Yet the idea of clinging together for safety would make them laugh. They are unique and indispensable. From the north of the county right down to the south they alone stand for civilization, applied science, organized manufacture, and the century — until you come to Wolverhampton. Bennett, Old W. T. I ch. 1, § 1.

160. The present can also refer to what is actually future (the *future present*). Its use in English is very much restricted, although less so in colloquial English than in the literary language.

The future present is necessary, the alternative with *shall* and *will* being unidiomatic, in adverb clauses, when the verbal idea is dependent upon the verbal idea of the leading clause, and the time is indicated in the main clause or by the conjunction.

With winter, in any case, Lake Baikal will cease to be an obstacle to communication, for as soon as it is frozen over, there will be sledge transport from one side of it to the other. Times W. 19/7, 18.

Oh, he'll ride the brute, now he's promised to do so if it costs him his life! Garvice, Staunch p. 232.

I only mention this simple incident, because it is necessary, before I *proceed* to the eventful part of my

narrative, that you should know exactly in what relation the sisters stood towards one another from the first.

W. W. Collins, in Selected Short Stories III. p. 240.

Cannot you wait till I come back?

No solution of the problems presented by history will be complete until the knowledge of man is perfect.

Pollard, History of England ch. 1 p. 8.

General Cadorna is obviously fighting delaying rear-guard actions, until he is able to establish himself on the Middle and Lower Piave¹⁾. Times W. 9/11, 17.

161. The restriction of the use of the future present to adverb clauses in the conditions indicated in the preceding section clearly shows that the use is due to a kind of linguistic economy, the group-future being excluded because it would be a repetition of the indication of time by the leading clause or by the conjunction. The present tense is only used, consequently, when the two verbal ideas are connected; it is not possible in noun clauses, nor in adverb clauses expressing an action or occurrence that is not dependent on the action or occurrence of the leading clause.

I expect the parcel *will come* to-day.

He will help us, so that we *shall be* able to finish it to-night.

162. In reported style the future present may be used in adverb clauses to refer to a future time that is thought of as past with regard to the time of the verbal idea expressed by the leading clause (*a*). The relation of time may also be inverted (*b*).

a. In despair the Ottoman Government has invited the Great Powers to interfere. France, in agreement with other Powers, notably Great Britain and Russia,

1) The clause with *until* really depends in thought on a sentence like *He will continue to do so.*

has informed Turkey that her overtures cannot be accepted until she *submits* definite proposals with regard to conditions of peace. Everyman 8/11, 12.

b. When the proposed Police College *is* established it is anticipated that only a half-blue will be awarded for playing in the harlequinade.

Punch's Almanack for 1931.

163. The future present is of a different character when used in simple sentences, or in the main clause of a compound sentence. In this case it is only an alternative to the group-future with *shall* and *will*, and its use is chiefly found in spoken English, generally of a familiar type. The time is usually indicated by an adjunct of time.

Your subscription expires on the 16th inst.

School recommences on January 14.

Parliament does not meet until February 14th. No one knows how or when the session will end.

Daily News.

"Nonsense. It's a weakness. I'm not Garvington. By the way, where is he?"

"In Paris, but he returns in a few days."

Hume, Red Money, p. 200.

"When *do* you start for South Africa?" she asked. —

"In three days. I *join* my battery in Natal."

Parker, Judgment House ch. 24.

164. The future present is not restricted to main clauses; it occurs or can occur when the verbal idea is not dependent upon some other verb; hence in continuative relative clauses (*a*) and in noun clauses (*b*).

a. The King, who leaves Abbeystead to-morrow and pays a visit to Lancaster, will go direct from the latter town to Balmoral. Daily News.

b. It seems Pavis Court must be sold this spring. They would go barefoot to keep it, but going barefoot won't keep it — nothing will.

Cotes, Cinderella ch. II. 136.

Come for a walk to-morrow. — All right. Where to? — Let's go to the Falls. I suggest we *start* soon after nine and I'll ask the landlady to put us up some sandwiches. Collinson, Spoken English p. 86.

Well, all that remains is the French match. Let us hope that we *manage* to win there. Graphic 23/3, 1929.

I hope I don't get planted next the Pumpkinette¹⁾. Sinister Street p. 689.

Let us hope Haig improves quickly in strength. Manchester Guardian, 1/6, 1923.

165. In familiar English the future present is also used to express determination.

"Let me go, father," Peter said, very white, and putting down the bag. — "Be damned to you," said his father. "You *don't* get through this door."

Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 10 p. 124.

"We *go* through that arch," said Arthur, "or my name is not Stubland." Wells, Joan and Peter ch. 3 § 9.

"And what do you do with Richard while you are absent on this expedition?"

"Oh!" said the baronet, "he *accompanies* his father." Meredith, Feverel ch. 13 p. 90.

Are you for staying and seeing the lions feed, or *do* we cut back? Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 5.

This seems to account for the case quoted by van der Gaaf in Engl. Studien (62 p. 402): "Two immaculately dressed young men in the stalls are talking about the clothes worn by the actors, which strike them as wonderful creations. All at once one of them says, "What's the name of the man who supplies the clothin'? Here we are, Snipe and Snipe, Bridge Street. Bertie, *I'm* there to-morrow, and you must come too, dear old boy." (Punch, 19/3, 1902 p. 206). What he means is that he is going there to-morrow to order some clothes."

1) i. e. the daughter of *the Pumpkin*, the nickname of the Warden of the College.

166. It follows from what has been said that the future present is used only when the time, though future, is thought of as connected with the present time. Thus we could not use the future present in *I shall work in the garden tomorrow*; nor in: *As I need some things, I shall go out shopping this afternoon.*

The future could not be replaced by the simple present in the following quotations, even though they occur in adverb clauses with an indication of future time in the main clause. The reason is that the 'adverb clauses' are really continuative. They must be treated as main clauses consequently (161). The future is necessary here because the future present would suggest an identity of the time of the two verbal ideas which is evidently out of place here.

The Queen will arrive on the 21th, when she will hold a general reception.

The first official aerial postal service in Europe will be inaugurated on Saturday, September 9, when letters will be conveyed by aeroplanes from the Hendon aerodrome to Windsor.

167. The present tense is finally used to express what actually concerns the past, but is represented by the speaker as belonging to the present. It often occurs in historical narratives, whence it has been called the *historical present*; as it aims at picturing the past as if it were the present moment it is also called the *dramatic present*. The historical present is rarely continued for a long time; in most cases a longer narrative will turn into the narrative past tense after some historical presents.

"Mother, you *are* going to marry Mr. Fenwick!" No change of type could do justice to the emphasis with which Sally goes straight to the point. Italics throughout would be weak. Her mother smiles as she fondles her daughter's excited face.

"I am, darling. So you may kiss him yourself when he comes to-morrow evening."

And Tishy's passion for the shop-boy had to stand over. But, as the Major had said, the mother and daughter talked till three in the morning — well, past two, anyhow!

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 14 p. 140.

"If you choose to make capital out of this accident," said he, "I am naturally helpless. No gentleman but wishes to avoid a scene," says he.

Stevenson, *Dr. Jekyll* p. 8 f. (also on p. 10).

For another example, too long to quote, see Walpole, *Fortitude* I ch. 10 § 3 (p. 120 f.).

168. The historical present is occasionally found in dignified or serious narrative prose, but is not very common in literary English. The reason is that it is felt that the narrative present, though making for liveliness, is at bottom a sign of weakness. English writers seem to feel a want of dignity in it; the following quotation from a review in the *Literary Times* is instructive.

... Nor is the situation improved by a rhetorical style, with a superabundance of superlatives and exclamations, and frequent lapses at critical moments into that most tiresome of devices, the narrative present tense.

Times Lit. 8/7, 15.

169. The historical present is sometimes used to illustrate a statement of a general kind; in such a case we have no true historical present, because it is not narrative. This may be illustrated by the following passage, which immediately follows upon the quotation in 155*b*.

Augustus, assuming the lordship of an empire, *bids* Virgil to construct for it a poetic descent from that Troy which was the rival of Rome's rival. Virgil *sings* of Aeneas, progenitor of the Roman might, and of his arduous journey to the fated land in which, as prophecy

assures him, his children *are* to establish a realm that *will* embrace the earth. The Aeneid may be to us simply a monument of the poetic art; to Augustus it *was* a means wherewith to foster in the Roman people a faith in their imperial destiny.

Times Lit. 14/11. 1929.

170. We have no narrative present in the following quotation, which states a merely suppositional series of events.

"I may be very obtuse, Holmes, but I fail to see what this suggests."

"No? You surprise me. Look at it in this way, then. Captain Morstan disappears. The only person in London whom he could have visited is Major Sholto. Major Sholto denies having heard that he was in London. Four years later Sholto dies. Within a week of his death Captain Morstan's daughter receives a valuable present, which is repeated from year to year, and now culminates in a letter which describes her as a wronged woman."

Conan Doyle.

The Plain Verb Stem

171. Apart from its use as an element of the suppletive present, the plain verb stem can be used predicatively and non-predicatively. These uses will now be treated.

The predicative stem differs from the present tense in the case of the verb *to be* only; this may justify us in treating the stem in two different chapters. The predicative stem is used in a number of functions, which may be classed as the *imperative* and the *exclamative*.

The non-predicative stem is exclusively used as an element of a group: either a purely verbal group (*He can talk*) or a mixed nominal and verbal group (*I saw the boy run away*). In this use it is generally called an *infinitive*; but the traditional term, as experience teaches, is apt to suggest the mistaken idea that living English

possesses a distinct form that is used in these functions, such as other languages, including older English, have.

Imperative Stem

172. The predicative plain stem can express a command or entreaty (*a*); also a challenge (*b*). It is oftenest used without a subject, which differentiates it from the present tense. The imperative is also different from the present by its intonation²⁾. It is generally accompanied by the name of the person addressed or some particle like *please*, or a clause such as *if you like*, etc. As in other languages it is used in simple sentences chiefly, or in the main clause of a compound sentence.

a. Go home and do what you are told.

Put a kettle on the gas-stove to boil.

Collinson, Spoken English p. 20¹⁾.

Please help me translate this. ib.

b. "Touch that bell if you dare!" screamed Paul.

Anstey, Vice Versa ch. 2.

173. The imperative is naturally used of those verbs only that express a voluntary action. If we find it used of the verb *to be* as in *be quiet, please*, it really answers to this description, for it requests the person addressed to act in the manner indicated. And when a father or mother says to children going out for the day: *Now, boys, enjoy yourselves*, we still have the same use; for it is the boys' own will that the enjoyment is supposed to depend on. The imperative-stem is also used, however, to express what is purely a wish, as in the familiar *sleep well*.

1) The examples there given, being massed together away from a context, suggest a form that is really exceptional or less frequent: there is usually some word to soften the command, if only a proper name.

2) Palmer, *Gr. of Spoken English* §§ 638 f.

"Good-night, little Lord Fauntleroy," she said. "Sleep well." Burnett, L. Fauntleroy p. 175.

"Good-bye, dear Uncle Jolyon, you have been so sweet to me."

"To-morrow then," he said. "Good-night, sleep well." She echoed softly: "Sleep well!"

Galsworthy, Indian Summer ch. 5 (Saga p. 428).

174. The imperative stem often leads to interjectional use, as in *come*, *fancy*, etc.

175. The imperative stem may have its subject *you* prefixed to it. The pronoun is used to make the form more emphatic, and is naturally strong-stressed. Stress and intonation are the only formal marks distinguishing this use from the present tense.

You sit down and get your breakfast.

Patterson, Stephen Compton p. 192.

"Don't you talk so much about glory," the (recruiting) sergeant was saying. He had drunk a good deal from one bottle and another and was growing rather incautious. "You've got to learn your trade first. *You wait* till I put you through it on parade and you've done a few fatigues. You won't talk so much about glory then."

Freeman, Joseph ch. 7 p. 53.

Now, there were two Fine Arts to which this master, Reginald Aiken, devoted himself. One, the production of original compositions, which did not pay, owing to their date. Some of these days they would — *you see* if they wouldn't! The other Fine Art was that of the picture-restorer, and did pay.

de Morgan, A Likely Story ch. 1 p. 10.

Further examples are given in volume 3, in the sections on sentence-structure and word-order.

176. The imperative group of *be* with a participle in a verbal function, forming what might be called a 'passive' imperative, occurs only in a few traditional groups.

A few years ago, when Dr. Jowett was master of Balliol, there was a discussion concerning two men who had attained high position at an early age. One of these had become a bishop, the other a judge; and the conversation turned on the respective merits of the two careers. One of the dons said: "I prefer the bishop. The judge can only say, 'you be hanged'; the bishop can say, 'you be damned'". "Yes", said Dr. Jowett sententiously, "but when the judge says 'you be hanged' *you are hanged*". Review of Reviews, June 1909, p. 520/2.

The following case is similar to the interjectional forms of 174.

"Let me go, father," Peter said, very white, and putting down the bag. — "Be damned to you," said his father. "You don't get through this door."

Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 10 p. 124.

177. The imperative stem when accompanied by a negative adjunct expresses a prohibition, both with a subject *you* and without. On the prohibitive with *not*, see the sections on the auxiliary *do*.

"What are you crying for?" — "What's that to you?" said she. — "Never you mind, but tell me what you're crying for." Kooistra and Schutt, Reader II p. 7.

178. The imperative stem may express a piece of advice or a warning, with the consequence expressed in the form of a coordinated sentence. The construction outwardly seems a double sentence, but the rising intonation at the end of the first sentence makes it clear that the function of the stem is that of a subordinate clause. The two elements of the construction are joined by *and*.

Thank goodness, the sun's shining at last. Give it another hour or so and we shall be able to sit out on the lawn. Collinson, Spoken English p. 30.

Ask too many questions, and you'll spoil everything. Pett Ridge, Garland, ch. 12 p. 215.

Come another step nearer, and I'll bring this poker on your head. Van Doorn, Dramatic Conv. p. 53.

Open Homer anywhere, and the casual grandeur of his untranslatable language appears.

L. Abercrombie, *Epic p. 58.*

Hints on how to open a new book.

Hold the book with its back on a smooth or covered table; let the frontboard down, then the back, holding the leaves in one hand while you open a few leaves at the back, then a few at the front, and so on, alternately opening back and front, gently pressing open the sections till you reach the centre of the volume. Do this two or three times and you will obtain the best results. *Open* a new volume violently or carelessly in any one place and you will likely break the back and cause a start in the leaves. Never force the back of a book, however well bound.

Earnest citizen. "Here you are, my dear, there's your British public. Give them something really good and they sniff at it; but give them something risky and, look, you couldn't get a seat if you tried."

His wife. "There's no harm in trying, dear."

Punch, 13/II, 13.

179. The same relation may be expressed by two imperative sentences connected by *and*.

Read English newspapers and periodicals and be well-informed. Advt.

180. When the stem is accompanied by *once*, the imperative meaning is inevitably weakened, so that the first sentence has the character of a conditional clause. When *once* opens the sentence, it comes to have the function of a conjunction rather than of an adverb¹⁾, and may be looked upon as the correlative of *and*.

Shut them out once and you shut them out for ever.

Times Lit. 13/5, 20.

It's better that the beast under you should be a Lion

1) *Once* is also used as a conjunction in other kinds of clauses; see the sections on *Conjunctions*.

rather than a Donkey, but let it once fling you off its back and you're done for. Walpole, *Fortitude III* ch. 6 p. 304.

Once grasp this fact and you will cease to be at the mercy of phrases ... Once begin to take the teaching of English composition seriously in all our schools and universities, and our teachers will soon train themselves.

Times Ed. S. 29/8, 18.

181. The sentence is clearly a conditional clause when the verb stem expresses a state rather than an action, as in the following: *Know one Frenchman and you know France.* (Meredith, *Egoist* p. 95). The shifting is still clearer when the verb in the second clause is a form in *id*, or a corresponding irregular form, which is evidently a modal preterite, not a past tense. Observe, too, that in many cases nobody is really addressed: instead of an imperative sentence we have a declarative compound one.

Miss Spencer could have withheld successfully any moral trial, but persuade her that her skin was in danger, and she would succumb. Bennett, *Babylon Hotel*, ch. 9.

Give me the schools of the world and I would make a Millennium. Bennett, *Joan and Peter* ch. 2 § 3.

182. A further step away from the imperative meaning is taken when the two clauses are not formally connected; this makes them resemble a hypothetical statement in form as well as in meaning. The preterite in the second clause is best interpreted as a modal preterite, as in the preceding section; but it would be possible to interpret the verbal *id* as an iterative past tense.

Give him a fact, he loaded you with thanks; propound a theory, you were rewarded with the most vivid abuse.

Birrell, *Obiter Dicta* p. 6.

Exclamative Stem

183. When the plain stem is used in an exclamatory sentence it may be better classed with the semi-imperative

constructions of 178 ff. than with the non-predicative stem (*a*). The difference is evident in exclamatory questions, often introduced by an interrogative adverb (*b*); and sometimes with a subject preceding the stem (*c*), both in purely exclamatory sentences and in questions.

a. And talk about dukes being scarce! Lady 'Masters' ¹⁾
are a good deal scarcer. Cotes, Cinderella p. 77.

b. To enforce their ascetic code the classicists had to devise a system of critical sanctions. Chief among these was the stigma of vulgarity attached to all those who insisted too minutely on the physical side of man's existence. Speak of handkerchiefs in a tragedy? The solecism was as monstrous as picking teeth with a fork.

Huxley, Vulgarity p. 18.

He found himself hoping that his statement would be laughed at. Then why make it?

Meredith, Harrington ch. 34 p. 361.

"I thought a first visit to Africa must be a wonderful experience." — "But, then — why refuse to come?"

Hichens, Ambition ch. 10 p. 115.

How preach at a creature on the bend of passion's rapids.

Meredith, Ormont p. 35.

c. "What!" he thought. "Henry Jekyll forge for a murderer!" And his blood ran cold in his veins.

Stevenson, Dr. Jekyll.

Then she recollected his friend's voice striking in with: "What's that? Gerry Palliser swim! Of course he can't..."

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 12 p. 120.

It's a lie! a shameless lie! I smash pots and pans?
I hurt my mistress? As good a mistress as I could but
wish!

Van Doorn, Dramatic Conv. I p. 55.

What's this, Aurora Leigh,
You write so of the poets, and not laugh?
Mrs. Browning, Aurora Leigh I 856 f.

1) i. e. M. F. H. = Master of the Fox Hounds.

184. The verb stem in exclamations and exclamatory questions has been called a predicative form (171), and its use has been shown to be related to that of the imperative stem. But it must be added that there is a still closer similarity to the use of the stem with *to* described in 204. And from a formal point of view the stem should rather be considered non-predicative here, for when it is made negative by *not*, this precedes the stem, whereas in predicative verbal forms the auxiliary *do* is used (also in the imperative).

To prevent your pretty bathing-costumes getting wet,
why not simply paddle in them, as is done on the
Continent?
Punch, 31/7, 12.

185. Observe the difference between the independent use of the verb stem, and its repetition, as in the following sentences.

"I did not know he ever did call on her. He does not know her." — "Not know Miss Mitchell?" — "I thought you were talking of Miss Robertson."

Sweet, Element. no. 70.

"I shouldn't go to the shop for a week or two if I were you."

"Not go?" said Peter astonished.

"No — for reason why — well — who knows? The days come and they go and again it will be all right for you. I should rub up the Editors, I should —"

"Rub up the Editors?" repeated Peter still confused.

Walpole, Fortitude II ch. 3 p. 173.

"Oh! what does it matter? Phil never knows what he's got on!" No one had credited an answer so outrageous. A man not know what he had on! No, no!

Galsworthy, Man of Property ch. 1 p. 8.

The Non-predicative Stem

186. The plain verb stem is used as a non-predicative form in two functions:

- (1) as the leading member of a purely verbal group.
- (2) as a member of a mixed noun and verb group.

187. The plain stem as the leading member of a verbal group is chiefly used with the verbs that are classed as auxiliaries; see 417 ff. The auxiliaries that can form such a group are *can*, *may*, *must*, *shall*, *will*, and *do*. The verb *to have* is also used but exclusively in the modal preterite *had*. As the auxiliaries are treated in the second half of this volume there is no need for a detailed treatment here. It may be observed that the stem generally follows the auxiliary, but not necessarily: *Barbour might be reluctant to act, but act he must* (Walpole, *Fortitude* I ch. 6 p. 73).

188. The plain stem is used pretty frequently at the beginning of a construction that resembles a concessive adverb clause in its function, the auxiliary following the subject in the usual order so that it is completely separated from the stem. The stem and the rest of the clause are connected by a relative pronoun or adverb, or by *as*. The 'concessive clause' generally precedes the main clause (*a*) but not always (*b*).

a. Say what you will of him, and resent him how you may, you can never open those four grey volumes without getting some mental stimulus.

Conan Doyle, *Magic Door*, p. 64.

Look which way they would, nothing could be seen of their poor little favourite.

Van Neck, *Easy Engl. Prose*.

Scoff as I might at "Sabbatarianism", was I not always glad when Sunday came? Gissing, *Henry Ryecroft*.

The mangling orders fell away as suddenly and completely as he had feared: they were duly absorbed among the local widows. Neglect the children as Lizer might, she could no longer leave them as she had done.

Morrison, *Tales of Mean streets*, p. 38.

Look at it as he might, he had been a failure at Dawson's. Walpole, *Fortitude* I ch. 7 p. 76.

b. But the boy knew when he met him again, sober this time, by the sad look in his eyes, that Stephen must go his way alone now, lead him where it would.
ib. I ch. 6 p. 63.

Consider, for example, the value of public sanitation, not merely to the poorer regions which would suffer first if it were withheld, but to the richer as well who, seclude themselves as they may, cannot escape infection.

Montgomery, *Modern British Problems*, I 37.

189. The grammatical character of the verb stem in the construction is not evident. In a sentence like the first quotation of 188 it would be intelligible as an imperative; but this would only account for the case when the subject is a pronoun of the second person, and it is evident that we have the same construction in the other cases. It is sometimes supposed that the verb stem is a subjunctive; now, apart from the fact that living English has no subjunctive at all, it is clear that the absence of concord of tense, as well as the absence of a subject, would be hard to account for¹⁾. And no English speaker really interprets it in this way.

It may be thought that the construction resembles the one dealt with in 178 ff. The difference is that the two clauses in this construction are never connected by *and*, and invariably take an auxiliary that forms a group with the stem. It must be added that the preterite in the concessive clause is an undoubted past tense, whereas in the conditional statements of 178 ff. it seems best interpreted as a modal form.

1) Students of the history of English must remember that what is attempted here is an interpretation of the *living* construction, which must be understood before there can be a historical account of its development.

The construction of 188 should be compared with the one illustrated by this sentence: *Short as it is, it is very interesting*, or *Much as I tried I could not find it*. See volume 3.

190. We also find the plain stem in purely verbal groups with *to dare* and *to need*, but only when these verbs are clearly subordinated in meaning to the stem, which is shown by their form without an ending in the third person singular of the present. See the sections on these verbs in the chapter on *Auxiliaries*. The use of the construction with a non-predicative *dare* or *need*, as in the last quotation, is exceptional.

No one dare prophesy the date of the end of the war.
Times Ed. S. 8/8, 18.

I need not say how we did our lessons that day.
Sweet, Spoken English p. 52.

(The word *goodness*) is sufficiently spaced from *good* itself not to need fear absorption.
Sapir, Language, p. 181.

191. We have an apparently similar group of the non-predicative stem *go* with another verb stem as the leading element, as in the following sentence.

... and being unable or unwilling, or too jealous, to go see for themselves, the jugs, cans and other receptacles began to think there must be something in it.
Times Ed. S. 22/8, 18.

In spite of the similarity to the groups with auxiliaries the construction with *go* is essentially different. In the first place it is invariably the non-predicative form that is used, and exclusively in its weak-stressed form, so that it only serves to modify the meaning of the leading verb stem, as a kind of auxiliary of aspect. The use is moreover restricted practically to some traditional combinations;

the groups are inseparable, with a fixed word-order, and are found in dialectal rather than in standard English. See also the sections on *to have* in forming the perfect, and on *Apparent Coordination*. Van der Gaaf (*Englische Studien* 62 p. 407) adds these examples:

She said . . . that papa and mamma wished her to go stay with them. Eliot, *Middlemarch*.

He's just got to come; and if he doesn't like it, he can go hang. Ethel Dell, *Keeper of the Door* p. 561.

Canst thou not hear a raven croak at the gates of a kraal but thou must needs go tell those who dwell within that he waits to pick their eyes?

Rider Haggard, *Nada the Lily* ch. 22.

192. The plain stem can also form an inseparable group with the verbs *to hear* and *to help*, both in their predicative and their non-predicative uses. This construction has little in common with either of those that have been mentioned in the preceding sections. The verb *to hear* is grouped only with a few stems like *say*, and *tell*; this points to the groups with *hear* being a remnant of a construction that was formerly a living one in English (see 60). It is more freely used with *to help*, but here, too, the plain stem is on the decline; in standard English *to help* generally takes the stem with *to*.

She remembered hearing tell that some of the painted pictures on the walls were worth a power of money.

Jane Barlow, *Everyman*, Jan 13, 1913, p. 372/2.

I have heard say that 'fools think that any fool can write a novel and many fools try,' possibly to their lasting regret. Patterson, Stephen Compton, p. 266.

Nobody, even if he has never heard tell of the matter, likes topsy-turvy construction, that mark of the untrained mind. Brewster, *Writing of English* p. 19 f.

Most of us have from time to time read or heard tell of the wonderful feats of engineering skill which were accomplished during the war. Times Lit. 17/3, 21.

It would be perfectly good Chinese according to my very scanty information about Chinese. And I hear say that the best Chinese literature has some very admirable effects. American Speech II, 1 Oct. 1926 p. 36 f.

Go to the scullery and help wash up at the sink.

Collinson, Spoken English p. 20.

I was standing, still wondering whether I should ride or walk from this town to Baltimore, when a switchman, who had just helped finish making ready a train, said — “Hallo, lad; which way are you going, to Baltimore?”

Davies, Super-Tramp ch. 17 p. 137.

It was while I lay there sleepless and tormented that the longing to help reunite Charlotte and her husband first entered my head. Eliz. in Rügen.

The good little shrill woman, tender-eyed and slatternly, had to help try on dresses.

Meredith, Emilia in England.

He helped raise the coat bearing the ingots.

Wells, Country p. 136.

Another example of the same type is *to make believe*:

He made believe that he was at a loss to find a foothold on his greasy pole ...

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 28 p. 303.

193. The second of the constructions mentioned in 186 may be typified by *Let John go now*. It is very similar to the Latin accusative with infinitive, and is usually called by the same name. It is clear that the two constructions must be different, if it were only because English has neither an accusative nor an infinitive in the sense of these terms in Latin grammar. Little seems to be gained by adopting a term that is almost certain to mislead a good many students, and it is proposed to call it the *object with plain stem*, a term that is not perfect but that is little likely to cause misunderstanding of the true character of the construction.

The term object, however, needs some comment here. When we say: *Let John go now* it is possible, in analysing this sentence logically, to look upon *John* as the object of *let*. Of course it must be understood that this analysis does not bring out what the construction means to the speaker: *John* is not really an object at all, but the subject of *go*. Even a logical analysis of this kind is frequently impossible, as in the following sentence: *He had seen this part of Africa change dramatically under his eyes* (Wells, *Joan and Peter* ch. 3 § 3). Perhaps the simple *noun with plain verb stem* would be the best term, although this would not imply that personal pronouns take the oblique form.

194. The object with plain stem is used with three small groups of verbs, most of them, however, verbs of very frequent occurrence:

- (1) a number of verbs of causing;
- (2) a number of verbs expressing 'to experience';
- (3) some common verbs of sensation and perception.

195. The verbs of causing that can take an object with plain stem are: *to have*, *to make*, *to help*, and the literary *to bid*. On *to have* see the chapter on the *Auxiliaries* in this volume. We may perhaps include *to let*, although it has a somewhat different meaning, and can only occasionally, as in our last quotation here, be said to express causing. On *to help* see 192.

The Germans, by a sudden attack in strength, made us give way. Times W. 5/4, 18.

There are some books which tell us about things, and other books which make us see things.

Athenaeum 24/12, 12.

Announcing that he must go and help Annette prepare the supper. Cannan, Corner, ch. 19 p. 206.

Amy had to help her mistress make herself as comely as she could be made without her best dress, mantle, and bonnet. Bennett, Old W. Tale IV ch. 2 § 1.

To help her arrange the presents.

Sidgwick, Severins p. 169.

Please help me translate this.

Collinson, Spoken English p. 20.

I think you need a stiff dose of quinine and a couple of aspirins to help you get to sleep. ib. p. 62.

He bids them admire and reverence, but at the same time, he would have them remember that literature is a living influence, which should inspire to action as well as wonder. Times Lit. 30/3, 16.

It was an indefinite but irresistible call that sent him out into the wilderness, and an indefinite but irresistible call that bade him leave it. Times Lit. 11/3, 20.

Let the boy go now.

Only let me help nurse him.

Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 29 p. 368.

He denied that the "Narodna Obrana" had participated in the plot, but let it be clearly understood that it had been decided upon by the "Black Hand."

Times Lit. 17/10, 1929 p. 802/3.

196. The second group of verbs taking the object with plain stem consists of *to have*, *to find*, and *to know*. For *to have* see *Auxiliaries*. With regard to the verb *to know*, it must be added that it can only express 'experience' when it is used in the preterite or in the group-perfect (*have known*), i. e. in the forms that express a connection with the past.

Your mother may find it do her good.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 2 p. 11.

Methodism and the Church soon found their paths diverge. Wakeman, Introd. p. 438.

It might be well to say a prayer against those omens. He knew a good one which his father's mother, a wise

woman, had found prevail against the powers of evil.
Pickthall, *Larkmeadow* ch. 28 p. 182.

'Tis just the sort of rum, savage old place you do like.
You'll find hobgoblins and all sorts of queer devils here
come presently. Phillipotts, *Beacon I* ch. 10 p. 84.

In short, the more we study our constitution whether
in the present or the past, the less do we find it conform
to any such plan as a philosopher might invent in his
study. Maitland, *Const. Hist.* p. 197.

I never knew a man die of love, . . . but I have known
a twelve-stone man go down to nine stone five under
a disappointed passion.

The Lancet asserts that General Elections are bad
for the health. This is quite correct. We have known
Governments die from them. Punch.

I never thought of that before. And yet I have known
such strange things happen in the way of fun that I
can well believe it.

Blackmore, *Lorna Doone* ch. 66 p. 501.

Have you ever known me tell a lie? cried Ruth in
great indignation. ib. ch. 75 p. 568.

All right, lad; we'll get to work at it an' see what we
can do. I only hope it will be all right. I've never known
you go wrong yet. Patterson, *Compton* p. 133.

197. The third group of verbs taking the construction
are some of the commonest verbs of sensation or per-
ception: *to feel*, *to hear*, and *to see*. The use of the object
with plain stem with these verbs is perhaps the most
frequent of all the cases enumerated.

It should be noted that the verbs of perception cannot
be strictly distinguished from the verbs of experience in
196: in the first place a perception, whether it may be
classed as a physical or mental process, implies an
experience; and secondly these verbs, like *to see* in the
two last quotations below, may express experience rather
than perception.

The girl felt fear and love rush up desperately to overwhelm her. Galsworthy, *Freelands* ch. 29 p. 368.

Pauline felt her heart almost stop beating at the notion. Mackenzie, *Guy and Pauline* ch. 2 p. 71.

We heard the door open and had hardly time to put the forms up again. Sweet, *Spoken English* p. 52.

Winnie overheard the landlady tell the departing Miss H. that... Pett Ridge, *Garland*, ch. 13.

Rose saw him approach and knew him in the distance. Meredith, *Harrington* ch. 23 p. 240.

She thought of spring and how lovely it would be to see the trees come out again, and almond blossom against a blue sky. Galsworthy, *Caravan* p. 172 f.

To Lord Cromer it was given more than to most men to see the harvest which he had sown ripen into splendid maturity. Times W. 2/2, 17.

He has already said that he wants to see the United States have the greatest mercantile fleet in the world. Observer, 27/2, 21.

198. On the analogy of the verbs in the preceding section we also find the construction, though occasionally only, with some verbs of related meaning: *to watch* is very common, resembling *to see* though differing in that it expresses a voluntary action, not a sensation only. The construction is less frequent with *to behold, notice, observe, perceive, witness*.

He watched Cards walk slowly down the hill.

Walpole, *Fortitude* I ch. 6 p. 68.

She covered her awkwardness by throwing a twig into the water and watching it float down the stream.

Cannan, *Corner*, ch. 18.

Michael watched her follow her husband through the room. Sidgwick, *Severins* ch. 4 p. 40.

It is pleasant to watch from an open casement a lonely remote upland village in a gorge of the hills renew its day. Times W. 3/5, 18.

They moved, however, and Lizzie watched the parent return. Phillpotts, Beacon II ch. 15 p. 246 (ib. p. 252).

He watched me drink and eat with a touch of envy.
Wells, Country p. 143.

He watched her button one of her gloves.

James, Reverberator p. 7.

She beheld her brother pass these young men, and bow to them. She beheld them stare at him without at all returning his salute.

Meredith, Harrington ch. 14 p. 153.

I observed her draw a square-inch or two of pocket-handkerchief from the doll-pocket of her doll-skirt.

Brontë, Villette ch. 1.

Whilst waiting for their approach, he noticed them pause from some slight obstacle.

One evening, in a potato-patch, I witnessed a large hawk-moth meet his end in a way that greatly surprised me. Hudson, Hampshire Days ch. 6 p. 116.

199. The object with plain stem is occasionally used, evidently as a parallel to the preceding cases, with verbs of sensation that generally take a prepositional noun-object: *to listen to*, *to look at*. The resulting construction may be called the *prepositional object with plain stem*.

A half-an-hour of to-day I spent in a punt under a copper beech out of the pouring rain listening to Lady —'s gamekeeper at A — talk about beasts and local politics. Barbellion, Journal, June 5, 1907.

'Look at Glorvina enter a room', Mrs. O'Dowd would say, 'and compare her with that poor Mrs. Osborne, who couln't say bo to a goose.'

Thackeray, Vanity Fair ch. 43.

For more examples the reader may be referred to *English Studies* IX, 115 and X, 9. The construction is common in American English. Observe, too, that in the last quotation we may have Irish rather than British English.

200. Now that the object with plain stem has been fully illustrated it may be the best place here to discuss some points that have not yet been dealt with. Perhaps the most important of them is the observation that the verb stem in all these constructions invariably expresses an action or an occurrence, never a state. This is natural enough in the case of the verbs of causing, for these necessarily refer to a process rather than to the resulting state; but it applies equally to the verbs expressing experience and sensation. When these verbs are used to refer to a state another construction is used, either a subordinate clause or an object with stem accompanied by *to*. As the various constructions with verbals and with subordinate clauses will be fully discussed in a special chapter (336 ff.) a typical example of each case will suffice here: *I saw (noticed) that he was very pale; She felt her feet to be stone-cold on the floor* (Bennett, *Old Wives' Tale* III ch. 7 § 1). See also 113.

With regard to the construction in 192 it is now clear that it is connected with the object with plain stem construction that these verbs can take.

201. It has been mentioned in 193 that the term object, which is only used to suggest that the personal pronouns take the oblique forms in this construction, should not be taken to indicate that there is a real object in the syntactic sense. In many cases the logical analysis applied to the example quoted in 193 is in no way possible, as when the construction is used with *to make*, or other verbs of causing. It is evident that the construction is in all cases to be taken as an indivisible syntactic unit. This is also shown in the following sentence by the parallelism between the noun-object *the weight of the great man's body* and the preceding object with stem. Similarly in the last quotation.

What a night of nights! Peter, trembling with

excitement, felt *Henry Galleon put his arm in his, felt the weight of the great man's body.*

Walpole, Fortitude III ch. 4 2 p. 253.

Another point of sympathy between those two was their passion for *military music* and *seeing soldiers pass.*
Galsworthy, Caravan p. 167 f.

The Complex Plain Stem

202. By the side of the simple plain stem we can also distinguish syntactic groups of a plain stem of a verb of subordinate meaning with another verbal form as a complex plain stem. Thus by the side of *see* we have the complex plain stems *be seen, have seen, have been seen, be seeing, have been seeing*; compare 128. The functions of these complex plain stems are the same as those of the simple plain stem, so that there is no need to treat of them here; their meanings will be dealt with in the sections on the respective auxiliaries.

The Verb Stem with to

203. The verb stem with the proclitic prefix *to* has a very different character from the plain stem. The functions of the two forms are equally different, although there are some uses in which they are more nearly related. The functions of the verb stem with *to* can be classed as:

(1) predicative; (2) non-predicative.

204. The predicative function of the verb stem¹⁾ resembles that of the exclamative plain stem in 183 ff. Its predicative character is equally uncertain; it takes the negative *not [nɒt]* before it in the same way as the non-predicative stem and the verbal *ing*.

1) It is not necessary always to add with *to*, because we use *plain stem* for the stem without *to*.

The stem with *to* is used in exclamations, both with a subject (*a*) and without one (*b*) expressing astonishment, indignation, sorrow, or also, in combination with an interjection, longing and regret (*c*).

a. "Oh, mamma, I cannot go!" cried Molly. "I've been so much with her; and she may be suffering so, or even dying — and I to be dancing!"

Gaskell, Wives I ch. 17 p. 295.

I, to herd with narrow foreheads !

Tennyson, Locksley Hall, 175.

b. "Cyril has not been a good son," she said with sudden, solemn coldness. "To think that he should have kept that" She wept again.

Bennett, Old W. Tale IV ch. 1 § 3.

Only to think that my stars should let me off so easily!

R. H. Froude, Rem. I, 257.

Cards wanted to be admired, but to be liked! . . . what was the gain?

Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 6 2 p. 66.

(Observe that *to be liked* can hardly be interpreted as an adjunct to *wanted* in the preceding sentence).

c. Ah! no more to address thee or hear thy kind replying, Brother Ne'er to behold thee again!

Ellis, Catullus, LXV, 9.

Oh, to be in England. Browning, Home-Thoughts.

205. In exclamatory questions there is an interrogative pronoun or adverb. In such sentences the character of the form is to be called non-predicative rather than predicative.

But how to hinder vexatious prosecutions?

Newman, Letters.

Ah, what to do?

Morris, Aeneid.

206. The functions of the stem with *to* illustrated in the two preceding sections, whether predicative or not,

are at any rate very unimportant elements in English sentence structure, English using this type of exclamatory sentences in a very limited measure, apart from the moderate use that is made of exclamation in English generally. In all the other cases the verb stem with *to* is not the leading element of the predicate. The uses may be classed as follows:

- (1) as an adjunct, to verbs, nouns, adjectives, or in free adjuncts;
- (2) as a member of a plain or prepositional object with stem;
- (3) as an independent element of the sentence:
 - (a) as a subject; (b) as a nominal predicate.

The Stem with to as an Adjunct

207. The stem with *to* when used as an adjunct is treated first of all, not so much because this is perhaps the most frequent function, but in the conviction that all the other functions can best be understood as developments, or rather special forms, of its use and meaning in adjuncts.

The following quotations show the verb stem as an adjunct to verbs (*a*), nouns (*b*), and adjectives (*c*). The adjectives are nearly always used predicatively, but not invariably, as the last two examples prove.

a. Lady Adela had now moved forward with Brun to look at the picture.

Walpole, Duchess of Wrexham ch. 1 p. 7.

b. My good Utterson, this is very good of you, this is downright good of you, and I cannot find words to thank you in. Stevenson, Dr. Jekyll p. 32.

Mrs. Haffen was the woman to make the most of such fears. Mrs. Wharton, House of Mirth p. 100.

The first German aeroplane to fly over London in broad daylight came here only last November.

Times W. 5/10, 17.

c. I shall be pleased to come.

He was afraid to go alone.

The canvas was destined to adorn a gilt fire-screen
in the drawing-room.

Bennett, Old W. Tale I ch. 1 § 2.

I hope you'll be able to sleep. ib. I ch. 2 § 2.

Well, Mr. Utterson, you are a hard man to satisfy,
but I'll do it yet. Stevenson, Jekyll p. 71.

These agricultural gentlemen are difficult customers
to deal with. Meredith, Feverel ch. 10.

208. It will be necessary to consider the relations of meaning between the stem as an adjunct and the leading member of the group. The fundamental relation is that of aim or purpose; this is natural, for *to* is expressly added to express this meaning. It may be noted that *to* can express aim or purpose in connection with the verb stem only, nouns taking *for*, as shown by the last three sentences quoted in the next section. The adjuncts to verbs will be treated apart from those to nouns and adjectives, but in most cases there is no difference of meaning, and the distinction cannot even always be made.

209. The verb stem expressing purpose is most frequently found as an adjunct to verbs.

We eat to live but we don't live to eat.

I called to see you.

Not to consult the oracle, although it was war-time,
but for an excursion, we set out one spring morning
for Delphi. Times W. 7/6, 18.

They generally paint their bodies all kinds of bright
colours. This they do partly for ornament, partly to
keep the flies off. Sweet, Element. no 18.

He writes not for dramatic effect, but to please and
soothe himself. Times Lit. 17/3, 21.

210. Closely related to the verb stem of purpose is the verb stem of result. The difference is only that purpose is an *intended* result. When the subject of the action is not a person the meaning is necessarily result, not purpose; when it is a person, it may be either, but the context generally makes it quite clear which is meant.

In the following quotations result is intended to be expressed.

The place was called the Devil's Bellows, and it was only necessary to come here on a March or November night *to discover* the forcible reasons for that name.

Hardy, Native IV ch. 5 p. 344 f.

The Anglian settlements north of the Tees were founded on a remote shore, but the great body of the Angle warriors pushed up the Humber, and up the rivers of the Wash system, *to become* neighbours of the Saxon, and *to be* involved in the history of the English plain. Mackinder p. 203.

There is the same machine, or at least a machine which is painted *to look* the same.

Low, Governance of England p. 5.

He was constantly taking up literary enterprises, only after a short time *to lay* them aside.

Asquith, Wotton p. 6.

West of the hall a perfect warren of smaller buildings grew up *to obscure* its beauty and conceal its proportions.

Westlake, Westminster p. 56.

Have I been twenty years in this man's house, *to be deceived* about his voice?¹⁾ Stevenson, Jekyll p. 71.

211. Not infrequently it is indifferent whether the stem is interpreted as an adjunct of purpose or of result (*a*). Sometimes the stem is rather coordinate with the preceding verb (*b*).

1) Note the pause (indicated by the comma), which is due to the adversative character of the relation (*and do you imagine, in spite of that, that I can be deceived*).

a. You have only to summarize events to realize how many of the failures from which we have suffered are attributable to this one fundamental defect in the Allied war organization. Times W. 16/11, 17.

b. At this he would wake up *to find* the lamp still burning on the table...

Temple Thurston, Antagonists I ch. 1 p. 13 f.

In the last example no relation of cause and effect between the two verbal ideas can be thought of.

212. As an adjunct to nouns (*a*) and adjectives (*b*), the stem can also express purpose or result. The last quotation under *a* shows that it is the situation chiefly, not the form, that decides whether the stem is an adjunct to a verb or to a noun.

a. I asked him if they had got any tobacco to make cigarettes with. Sweet, Spoken English p. 77.

Who was George Spragge to issue his commands to Hazel Goodrich? Vachell, Spragge p. 92.

No one would have the audacity to ask him for a subscription of a hundred pounds¹⁾.

Soames's determination to build went the round of the family.

He even lacked the energy to crawl upstairs to bed.

There is no need to mince one's words on the subject.

(He) was hardly the man to overawe a crowd of hard characters gathered by chance from Tower Hill, socialise them, and direct them successfully in subduing the conflicting elements of a difficult enterprise. Not he. But we said nothing *to discourage* him²⁾.

H. M. Tomlinson, in Van Kranendonk, Cont. Prose I p. 174.

1) A number of quotations in this and some of the following sections have been borrowed from the material (without references) in *Mod. Språk* for Dec. 1929 by Lars Lindberg.

2) If the stem were an adjunct to the verb it would be preceded by a break.

b. Zachary Tan had been always ready to receive him warmly. Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 9 § 3 p. 106.

In a word, the rich girl lived a life scientifically calculated to make her unhealthy.

Huxley, Vulgarity p. 8.

Blinkhorn was not disposed to be too exacting.

Are they good to eat?

Mother is unable to come.

The river is dangerous to bathe in.

213. In many cases the stem may seem to qualify a noun or adjective when in reality it is rather an adjunct to the whole predicate including a verb. See the last observation in 208.

Fenwick *was certainly not in a position* to gauge his own feelings towards Mrs. Nightingale.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 10 p. 89.

Into its back courts *were born* muddled indecent little *lives*, there blindly to wallow until the earth called them to itself again. Walpole, Fort. II ch. 7 p. 212.

I *have not the heart* to write.

Will you *have the kindness* to remain here?

I *am not at liberty* to enter into any explanations.

The boy *has the misfortune* to be an only child.

If a knowledge of the history of our Church is important, as we presume to think, to her members, it must be *dealt with in a manner* to make it interesting and palatable. Judge Phillimore in Pref. to Wakeman, Hist. Ch. of Engl. p. X.

214. The stem with *to* is frequently used as an adjunct to words (verbs, nouns, and adjectives) expressing wish; it is a kind of adjunct of purpose here too, but this relation is not clearly felt.

"I should like to be a teacher. That's what I want *to be*." . . . But that the daughter of comfortable parents, surrounded by love and the pleasures of an excellent home,

should wish *to teach* in a school was beyond the horizons of Mrs. Baines's common sense. Comfortable parents of to-day who have a difficulty in sympathizing with Mrs. Baines, should picture what their feelings would be if their Sophias showed a rude desire *to adopt* the vocation of chauffeur.

Bennett, Old Wives' Tale I ch. 3 § 1.

A sign of the temper of the authorities and of their determination *not to be hampered in the working out of policies.* Times Ed. S. 8, 8, 18.

... men who wanted no steady employment, but *to make easy and quick stakes*¹⁾.

Davies, Super-Tramp ch. 13 p. 102.

215. Closely related to the preceding case, if not identical with it, is the stem as an adjunct to adjectives denoting a feeling: *glad, happy, contented, delighted, afraid, eager, impatient* (*a*). Also with verbs such as *to like, to hope, to trust, to hate, to fear* (*b*).

a. I am glad to hear you agree with me.

I should be afraid to ask him for help.

Well, he'd talked over and over again of this old chapel till we were mad to go there. Sweet, Sp. Engl. p. 51.

b. I should like to be a teacher. See 214.

We hope to see you again soon.

He hated to look at the letters.

Bennett, Roll-Call I ch. 8 § 4.

I trust to meet you again soon.

Rushing in where Sir Archibald and his colleagues so wisely feared to tread, I shall try to discover.

Aldous Huxley, Vulgarity p. 1.

216. The idea of purpose or result may be completely absent, so that the stem, instead of qualifying the verb, is used to complete its meaning, in the same way as a noun can be used. The stem is often called an object in

1) Observe the parallelism between the noun-object and the stem.

this function, but it differs in many ways from noun-objects¹⁾. It may be convenient to call the verb stem in these cases a *complementary adjunct*.

But she did not attempt to enter the room.

Old W. T. I. ch. 2 § 1.

Paul did not really mean this, he only meant to frighten him²⁾. Anstey, Vice Versa ch. 2.

They did not disdain to turn fishermen in times of peace, but they despised all forms of agriculture.

Times Lit. 8/2, 18.

He has promised to do his best for us.

217. The stem with verbs of thinking and declaring is also best interpreted as a complementary adjunct; this applies to such verbs as *to pretend, profess, purpose, swear, threaten, vow*. See also 374 ff. on the stem and the verbal ing.

Sometimes, however, the stem may most naturally be looked upon as an adjunct of purpose or result.

218. *To think*, when it is used with a verb stem, can express the sense of 'expect, plan, propose' (*a*), also 'to remember' (*b*). But in its other meanings *to think* is regularly followed by a subordinate clause, or by *of* with a verbal ing, and the stem is rather literary than spoken English (*c*).

a. Many a man who thinks to found a home discovers that he has only opened a restaurant for his friends.

Eng. Rev. Aug. 1913.

I thought to find your brother guilty but it seems he is not. Hume, A Traitor in London.

Mark Robart's mistake had been mainly this, — he had thought to touch pitch and not be defiled.

Trollope, Framley ch. 42.

1) See the chapter on *Sentence-Structure*.

2) Observe the parallelism between the object *this* and the verb stem. Similarly in the next quotation.

b. I wish I had thought to get you a tea-gown.

De la Pasture, *Lonely Lady of Grosvenor Sq.* p. 216¹⁾.

Why had she not thought to suggest the removal of her desk to the far end of the room?

Niven, *Porcelain* p. 24.

c. A quickened imagination so deceived me that I thought to hear the sea rolling.

M. Pemberton, *Pro Patria* (T.) p. 83.

Other admirers, again, have thought to see in the Soviet system, when applied to industry as well as to politics, a method of separating the industrial and political spheres, while giving to both the means of self-government.
Times Lit. 7/8, 1919.

219. It is significant that the verb stem is never used as an object of verbs that are construed with an object and predicative adjunct (*The road went up hill and that made running difficult.* Walpole, *Fortitude* I ch. 2 p. 15). And if we do find the verb stem when the 'provisional' *it* is used (*that made it difficult to run*) this is only one more proof that it is a different construction; see the chapter on *Sentence-Structure*.

220. The stem as an adjunct can also express, or seem to express, the same meaning as an adverb clause of condition or cause.

1. You would do well to write more distinctly.

2. You can't say any one would ever know to look at us. Anstey, *Vice Versa* ch. 2.

3. Scrooge hung his head to hear his own words quoted by the Spirit.

Dickens, *Christmas Carol* st. III.

4. It sounds nothing to hear, but it was hellish to see. Stevenson, *Dr. Jekyll* p. 6.

5. What sort of a man is he to see? ib. p. 12.

1) v. d. Gaaf, *Engl. Studien* 62 p. 407 f.

6. Suddenly he would have given all the wide world
and his prospects in it not to be going.

Walpole, *Fortitude*.

The cause is often not in the meaning of the verb stem itself but in the nature of the predicate. Thus, in the first two quotations here the conditional meaning of the stems is due to the modal *would*. The third quotation may also be compared with the case of 215, for *hung his head* is really expressive of Scrooge's feelings. In the fourth sentence *to hear* is an adjunct to the predicative *nothing* (equivalent to *unimportant*), parallel to *hellish to see*. In the fifth sentence *to see* is an adjunct to the predicate as well. In the last sentence a conditional meaning, if real, is clearly the consequence of the resultative sense of *to be going*.

221. Sometimes the stem is in no way the adjunct to a verb, but must be considered as the leading element of the verbal group in which the other verb plays the part of adjunct: *I happened to see him*. The same relation exists, though not so clearly, in such a sentence as *I went to see him*. But when we say *I went home to ask if anybody had been for me* the stem with *to* is clearly an adjunct of purpose. The use may be illustrated by the following quotations.

Do you *happen* to know how much it costs?

Collinson, *Spoken English* p. 44.

And these thoughts are so extraordinary that we *cannot fail* to be conscious at the outset of their origin in the mind of a particular person.

Times Lit. 20/12, 1928 p. 997/2.

Hence they *tended* to alienate from the study of English all but the small body whose interests and outlook were scientific rather than literary¹⁾.

Teaching of English in England (1921) p. 217.

1) See 236.

But no! we *stood* to lose in Armenia, . . . where we *stand* to gain. Richard Le Gallienne, quoted Engl.
19th cent II p. 318.

It is obvious that the Transvaal as a unit *stands* to gain by this competition. Graphic 6/10, 1906¹⁾.

Uncle Copas's doll . . . had somehow *missed* to engage her²⁾. Quiller-Couch, Brother Copas p. 140.

The stem with *to* is also to be considered as the chief part of a verbal group with *to have*: (*I have to work hard*; cf. *I must work hard*), *to begin*, *to come* (*The River Thames has come to be largely used as a place of public recreation and resort*) and *to be* (*we are to meet at s*), etc.

222. A verb may form a close group with a verbal stem in the way illustrated in 221 but retain more of its independent meaning.

But a moment later he *hastened to pick up* the hat which C. had dropped.

Pauline was aware of a wild effort to prepare for sorrow whether near at hand or still far off she did not know, but she *seemed to hear* it like a wind rising at sunset. Mackenzie, Guy and Pauline p. 312.

In the first sentence *hastened* may seem an independent verb, but if we ask why it would be impossible to substitute *hurried*, the answer must be that *hurried* would make the leading idea of *picking up* subordinate, thus reversing the relation of the elements of the group.

223. It must also be remembered, here as well as elsewhere, that the meaning of a word is not inherent to it but

1) v. d. Gaaf, *Engl. Studien* 62 p. 407 f.

2) This quotation is one of five, all of them illustrating this use of *to miss*, but from the same book, in a note by Dr. Arvid Smith in *Moderna Språk*, Dec. 1925, p. 175 f.

depends upon the way it is grouped with other elements of the sentence, or rather that the meaning is not expressed by the individual words but by the groups. Thus the verb *to look* is used in two very different 'meanings' in the following quotations, because in the first two it is qualified by an adjunct of result (*a*), whereas in the last it rather serves to modify the following stem (*b*).

- a.* We should have *looked to find* an all-powerful king.
Oman, Conquest p. 153.

The result is that their lectures frequently provide such stimulus to the mind of the undergraduate listener, and even the outside reader, as neither undergraduate nor outside public ever looked in old days to receive from the utterances of professors. Times Lit. 6/9, 23.

- b.* The tramp *looked to be* less savoury than most tramps; and more dangerous.

E. Wallace, The Northing Tramp I ch. 3.

224. With adjectives the stem is frequently used as a complementary adjunct similarly to the cases of 216. Adjectives requiring such a complement are *fit*, *worthy*, *glad*. In such a sentence as *I am glad he is coming* the subordinate clause is often called an object-clause; the stem has clearly a similar function in *I was glad to see him*.

(Michael) was shocked to hear that she would not accompany (them). Sinister Street p. 159.

We also find a predicative adjective as a modifying element of the following stem, in the same way as the verbs in 221 f.

Such an exactitude is consistent with vital change; Milton himself *is bold to write* "stood praying" for "continued kneeling in prayer". Raleigh, Style p. 36.

225. With nouns the stem often has defining functions similar to those of an attributive clause. This use may be compared with the case of 216.

The Stubland aunts were not the ladies to receive a solicitor's letter calmly. Wells, Joan Peter ch. 5 § 4.

There was no boy to disturb the wild creatures with his hunting instincts and loud noises.

Hudson, Hampshire Days ch. 1 p. 4 f.

I have no longer a great number of years to look forward to, but I have a great many to look back upon.

Haldane, Addresses p. 122.

But Caesar was not the man to accept a defeat: he was determined to repeat his invasion.

Oman, Conquest p. 41.

Walpole... developed the office of prime minister, which, without any law to establish it¹⁾, became one of the most important of British institutions.

Pollard, Hist. of Engl. ch. 5 p. 142.

226. The leading element may also be a pronoun.

Was there *anyone to stop him?* At that hour of the morning, the whole world he walked in was his own.

Temple Thurston, Antagonists I ch. 1 p. 12.

But I say, Ben, it's lucky young Harry's old enough now to do without *her to look after him.*

Freeman, Joseph ch. 1 p. 5.

227. The construction is frequent with an ordinal for the leading element, or qualifying the leading noun.

In those early days of spring the rook is a hungry bird, with a wary eye for the *first man to put his corn in.*

Freeman, Joseph p. 1.

And this was not the *first building to meet that fate.*

Times Lit. 29/6, 1917.

The *last to arrive* waited on the roads...

Times W. 2).

1) This might be interpreted as a free adjunct; it is clearly different from the apparently similar construction in the last quotation of 226.

2) Dr. Arvid Smith in *Moderna Språk*, March 1925.

228. The stem in this function may have or develop a special meaning (*a*). One of the clearest cases is *to do*. The attributive function sometimes leads to the predicative use of the stem (*b*).

a. To which Miss Conacher vaguely looking round for a list of Mrs. Williams's blessings and finding none to speak of¹⁾ had no reply. Walpole, *Fortitude* II ch. 7 p. 213.

In the infinite universe there is room for our swiftest diligence and to spare.

Walker was late with his report because he was so illiterate that he had an invincible distaste for anything to do with pens and paper.

Maugham, *Trembling of a Leaf* II p. 17.

Besides it was nothing whatever to do with drink.

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 15 p. 149.

He insisted that when a month had passed he would indeed be gone from Plashers Mead. It was nothing to do with Michael Fane: it was solely his own determination to put an end to his unprofitable dalliance.

Mackenzie, *Guy and Pauline*, p. 355.

Its clever description of everything to do with the working of our guns. Times Lit. 27/4, 16.

"It's nothing to do with Cyril," said she.

"Then what is it?"

Bennett, *Old W. T.* IV ch. 1 p. 3.

Theresa ... was attired in wine-coloured velvet, and wore a jet bonnet, trimmed with velvet to match.

Leeds Mercury, in NED.

b. Mackilleveray rumbled deep in his throat, and if the sound meant laughter, the expression on his sullen face was not to correspond. Richard Dehan, *The Pipers of the Market Place* II, 91.

229. The attributive function of the stem can be shown to be a development of the final one by transitional cases like the following.

1) None worth calling 'a blessing'.

But the bird said: "No, I mustn't be idle; I must get *some hay to build my nest with*" But the horse said: "No, I mustn't be idle; I must go and plough, or there won't be *any corn to make bread of.*"

Sweet, Spoken Engl. p. 49.

The real ground of his resentment was rather vexation that *anything* should arise to mar the unanimity of the humanist advance toward wider knowledge.

P. S. Allen, The Age of Erasmus, p. 163.

If the idea of purpose is clearer in the verb stem of the first quotation than of the second, the cause is not in the noun or in the verb stem that qualifies it, but in the relation between the leading verb and the stem in the adjunct.

230. It has been shown that *to* prefixed to
Connecting Words the verb stem often expresses purpose or result,

but that it does not do so apart from the situation, and is often used when no such meaning is intended. This is natural, because *to*, though it may be looked on as a kind of preposition, is never used in this meaning except with a verb stem; see 208.

The consequence is that a stem when used as an adjunct of purpose to a verb, often has its relation made more definite by prefixing *in order to*.

In order to support the roof a second row of columns was added. N. E. D.

I turned round to see if any person was near, who might by chance have witnessed so strange a thing, in order to speak to him about it.

Hudson, Hampshire Days ch. 2 p. 36.

It will be observed that the additional prefix is here used with the verb stem separated from its leading verb.

231. A stem when used as an adjunct to a noun, or adjective, is often shown to be an adjunct of result by the adjunct of degree qualifying the headword (*a*). If the

adjunct is *so* or *such*, the stem is preceded by the correlative *as* (*b*).

a. A man who has light enough to know he is wrong but not grace enough to forsake the evil.

Spurgeon, Sermons.

He is wise enough to know what is expected of him.

Jane's sense of psychology was far too acute, and she was far too human and unpedantic to make such an attitude possible to her.

Lady Sackville, Introd. p. X.

As a race we are too afraid of giving ourselves away ever to produce a good autobiography.

Conan Doyle, Magic Door p. 83.

b. These things seem to us at the present day so natural as hardly to be noticeable.

Dicey, Constitution, Lect. VI.

I must do it in such a manner as to give pleasure.

Times Lit. 10/8, 16.

232. When *so* may seem to qualify a verb it is only occasionally a real adjunct of manner; this use is literary rather than colloquial (*a*). In most cases *so*, though originally an adjunct to the leading verb, is transferred to *as to*, so that *so as to* is a sort of compound. It expresses result (*b*) or purpose (*c*).

a. Put it so as not to offend him.

b. He trod about the floor while putting by his lantern and throwing aside his hat and sack, so as to merge the marks of Dunstan's feet on the sand in the marks of his nailed boots¹⁾.

Eliot, Silas Marner ch. 5 p. 66.

c. Peter had been kneeling so as to catch his grandfather's words. Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 8 p. 88.

1) The situation leaves no doubt but result is intended, not purpose.

"And now you had better go and dress", said his father, "so as not to keep your uncle and me waiting."
Montgomery, Misunderstood ch. 2.

She spoke no further on the matter to me, but that may have been so as to cause me no further uneasiness.
Baring-Gould, Swaen I p. 9.

Shall we go round that way, and back over Hatchbury Down, so as to get a view of the moors?
Sweet, Spoken English p. 71.

233. In interrogative adjuncts the stem is connected with its headword by an interrogative pronoun, adverb, or conjunction (*a*). We also find them with *to teach*, *to learn*, etc. (*b*).

a. But with us, hot summers are things known by tradition only; we generally have more moisture, especially in July, than we well know what to do with.
Blackmore, Lorna Doone ch. 46.

She hardly knew, as she waited, whether to expect the little child she had loved or the grown-up man she hardly knew.
Sidgwick, Severins ch. 1.

It was now a question whether to continue the fight or to withdraw from some valuable positions.

Times W. 8/3 18.

I was in two minds whether to run away or stop.
Stevenson, Kidnapped.

"What?" said Swithin, "six languages?" Privately he thought, 'He knows how to lie anyway.'

Galsworthy, Caravan p. 9.

Some new curtains would make a world of difference, but she did not know where to get the stuff.

Freeman, Joseph ch. 13 p. 112.

b. Her father had taught her how to jump, besides the how of many other practical things.

Meredith, Amazing Marriage ch. 4 p. 38.

The Alsatians have known how to take advantage of the German markets.
Times Lit. 19/10, 17.

234. The interrogative-relative pronouns and adverbs serve as objects or adverb adjuncts to the stems in the above quotations. We also find the interrogative adverb *how* to serve as a connecting word between *to know* and *to learn* and the stem, which has the function of an object rather than that of an adjunct of manner.

It's part of the matrimonial game that wives must learn how to bear things. Kenealy, Grundy p. 45.

She found her way downstairs into the drawing-room in good time; she could look about her, and learn how to feel at home in her new quarters.

Gaskell, Wives I ch. 5 p. 99.

The long years of the Peloponnesian war bred a generation who knew one thing well — how to fight.

Goodspeed, Hist. p. 192.

Ariadne Gale began to babble. That girl didn't know how to be quiet.

Carolyn Wells, Vicky Van III p. 39.

Perhaps there is always some idea of manner in the relation of the two elements of the group when *how* is used. The verbs can also take the simple stem with *to* expressing result, or serving as a complementary adjunct.

I'll teach you to cheek your mother¹⁾.

They soon learnt to concentrate their energies upon those quarters of the globe in which expansion was easiest and most profitable.

Pollard, Hist. of Engl. ch. 6 p. 150.

With languages as with our friends, we shall know better how to deal with them if we learn to know their habits and tendencies²⁾.

Palmer in Bulletin July 1929 p. 4/2.

235. A verb stem that qualifies a noun as an attributive adjunct, without any interrogative meaning being implied,

1) v. d. Gaaf, *Englische Studien* 62 p. 408. 2) Cf. *we shall get to know*.

takes a relative pronoun when the verb stem is accompanied by a prepositional adjunct. The preposition always opens the group.

There has never been wanting appropriate machinery by which to carry the censorship into effect.

Dicey, Constitution, Lect. VI.

Peter gave himself a fortnight in which to produce something that he could "show."

Walpole, Fortitude II ch. 7 p. 213.

Her plan was to detain this person until her outraged glance might fall upon some unattached male she knew, with whom to be found agreeably trifling by Frank himself. C. D. Jones, Everlasting Search ch. 2 p. 25.

When there is no relative pronoun the preposition always comes last; see the quotation from Lord Haldane in 225.

236. The stem with *to* is used with verbs, nouns, and adjectives that can be construed with a noun-adjunct with the preposition *to*, so that *to* forms a syntactic unit with the noun, adjective, or verb rather than with the stem.

It will be noted that in many cases *to* has a local meaning, although this is naturally related to the final meaning that we have treated as the fundamental one in the preceding constructions of the stem with *to*. See 77 f. on the use of the verbal *ing*, and 361 ff. and 387 for the comparison of the two constructions.

Turkey has agreed to abandon her sovereignty over the whole of her dominions in Europe with the exception of the vilayet of Adrianople. Times W. 3/1, 13.

She almost brought herself to own that she would rather see her darling the wife of an idle ruined spendthrift, than watch her thus drifting away to an early grave.

Trollope, Three Clerks.

It was this, precisely, that had set the Prince to think.
Henry James, Golden Bowl.

But do we not tend to accept the eager and childish hopes of humanity...¹⁾

Benson, *Thread of Gold*, p. 34.

Ruskin held that there was an intimate connection between morality and art. This theory led him to try and make the art of England better by first making the people live wholer lives.

Sefton Delmer, *English Lit.*, p. 164.

There is and always has been a great repugnance at the old universities to accept State subsidies.

Times Ed. S. 14/2, 18.

I hope you will see your way to do it.

She is on the way to do it. Peard, *Madame* p. 95.

Laud was inclined to trust somewhat to the Lords' resistance. Shorthouse, *Ingle Sant* ch. 10 p. 117.

We are not disposed to take a despondent view of the present situation. *Times W.* 3/1, 13.

The ear is not accustomed to exercise constantly its functions of hearing; it is accustomed to stillness.

Ruskin, *Modern Painters*.

Stalwart dangerous fellows, used to swing the sickle or to wield the forest axe, were likewise shaken with strange paroxysms, and spoke oracles with sobs and streaming tears. Stevenson, *Donkey* p. 120.

237. The distinction of free adjuncts from the attributive and adverb adjuncts, however necessary for a true understanding of English sentence-structure (see volume 3), is naturally productive of 'difficulties'. But they are difficulties only as long as one cherishes the idea that each case must have its pigeon hole; the 'difficult' case becomes a gain of insight into the function of these adjuncts in English sentence-structure when we look upon it as a means of understanding how

1) Compare the third sentence in 221, and observe that the subject is non-personal in 221, personal here.

the attributive or adverb adjunct can develop into a free adjunct.

The following cases may be classed as free adjuncts, though the final meaning of the attributive or adverb adjunct is quite distinguishable.

A great many boys, to be efficiently educated, need close individual attention¹⁾.

Benson, Journal of Engl. St. I, 151.

To be honest, I do not believe in fretting too much over a piece of writing. ib. p. 86.

Indeed, to speak frankly, I plan and arrange all my days that I may secure a space for writing

Benson, Thread of Gold, p. 85.

At the same moment, to confuse little things with big ones, Mrs. Lazarus suddenly decided to die.

Walpole, Fortitude II ch. 3 § 2 p. 175.

238. In other cases there is no implication of purpose or result, but many of them are in the nature of traditional phrases.

The mere fact that he gives a purely Celtic name to the land is conclusive, not to speak of other evidence to be deduced from the fragments of his work that survive.

Oman, Conquest p. 10.

Yet, to look at her, you would never have imagined that anything but the honey of speech could have dropped from so perfect a little rose.

Allen, Mettle of the Pasture.

Then the old gentleman began in the most wonderful way, and to hear him talk you would imagine that school was the paradise to which all good boys were sent.

Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 4 § 3 p. 43.

One would think, to hear them talk, that England is full of English traitors. Times Lit. 20/1, 16.

1) The stem may be better explained as an adjunct of purpose qualifying *need*, and not as a free adjunct.

Everybody looked at mother, to hear her talk like that.
Lorna Doone p. 68.

239. As in other free adjuncts, the relation to the rest of the sentence is sometimes defined by conjunctions.

As if to justify this illusion, we incline to isolate it (viz. the Elizabethan era). Times Lit. 26/10, 16.

When her husband had set forth, Amy seated herself in the study and took up a new library volume as if to read. Gissing, New Grub Street ch. 6.

He raised his hand as though to take off his hat.

It is generally believed that if the Government had been defeated on the measure it would have had no option but to resign. Spectator 10/8, 12.

240. The verb stem with a subject of its own (*absolute adjuncts*) is chiefly found in technical, especially legal, English (*a*), but not exclusively (*b*). The connection with the adjuncts of purpose is evident.

a. In 1888 the interest on the greater portion of the National Debt was reduced from 3 to $2\frac{3}{4}$ per cent., a further reduction to $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. to take place in 1903. Gooch, Hist. of our own Time p. 13.

Mr. V. produced a will which John Granger had executed a few days before his intended departure, bequeathing all he possessed to Susan Lorton — the interest for her sole use and benefit, the principal to revert to her eldest son after her death, the son to take the name of Granger. Braddon, In Great Waters (T.), p. 149.

In regard to the Albanian problem Austria and Italy agreed on the principle of nationality, the country to be neutralised under the guarantee of the Great Powers.

Everyman, 24/12, 12.

b. The pretty girl was to spend yet another afternoon with the elder lady, superintending some parish treat at the house in observance of Christmas, and afterwards to stay on to dinner, *her brothers to fetch her* in the evening.

Hardy, Ironies p. 75.

241. In a few combinations of a traditional kind we also find the unrelated verb stem. The final meaning is usually quite evident.

To say truth she did not know in the least....

Galsworthy, Frelands ch. 14 p. 162.

Charles II, to do him justice, desired toleration in the interests of the Puritan as well as of the Roman Catholic nonconformists. Wakeman, Introd p 385.

Truth to tell, she could not conceal her very pleased surprise at the exceptional though severe good taste which Steve had shown in the whole affair.

Patterson, Compton p. 220.

To return. The result of Mr. Alston's observations had been to make him an extremely shrewd companion.

Rider Haggard, Witch's Head ch. 24.

242. When we consider a sentence like: *They have taken a cottage by the sea to spend the summer holidays in*, the stem *to spend* is not really an attributive adjunct to *cottage*, nor is it exclusively an adjunct of purpose to *taken*: there is some truth in both explanations because in reality *to spend* is an adjunct to the group *have taken a cottage*.

We have a different construction when a verb that can be construed with a verb stem, as *I promised to come early*, takes an object: *I promised them to come early*; also: *I offered to pay the difference* and *I offered him to pay the difference*. In these sentences the noun or pronoun is an object of the predicative verb, and the verb stem serves as an adjunct, but the noun and the verb stem are independent of each other.

It may happen, too, that the noun or pronoun, though an object of the predicative verb, serves at the same time for the subject of the verb stem: *I advise you to give way to him*.

The addition of the object does not in these cases modify the relation of the leading verb and the verb stem. But we find very frequently that this relation is affected in such a way that the noun or pronoun is primarily, or even exclusively, the subject of the verb stem. The verb stem consequently, does not qualify the noun (or pronoun) but *forms a close group with the leading verb*, in spite of the intervening noun or pronoun¹⁾. This construction, for which the term *object and verb stem with to* may be used, must now be treated. Its parallelism to the *object with plain stem* (193) is evident. See the next chapter in which the various constructions with verbals are compared.

243. The following sentences may show the most important types of this construction.

1. I sent him to tell you the news.
2. I taught him to swim.
3. I enabled him to go.
4. I ordered him to go.
5. I wished him to go.

244. In sentences of the first type the verb stem is clearly an adjunct to the predicative verb to express purpose. The construction does not essentially differ from the verb stem expressing the same relation to a verb without an object.

245. The second sentence of 243 is very similar to the first, but it is important to observe that the verb must take an object. The pronoun can only be interpreted as a direct object, to the group *taught to swim* rather

1) A consequence of this grouping is the shifting of the order of words in the case of *let*: *He let the axe fall* turning into *He let fall the axe*; see *Auxiliaries on to let*. Also 290 on the nom. with stem.

than to *taught*. See *Sentence Structure* in volume 3. The relation of predicative verb and verb stem also differs from the first type: the verb stem is rather a complementary than a final adjunct.

246. The third sentence resembles the first in that the pronoun is the object of the predicative verb; the verb stem, however, serves as an adjunct of result rather than of purpose.

247. In sentences of type 4 the verb stem has the character of a complementary adjunct as in the second type, but the pronoun is plainly the object of the predicative verb only; compare *I had given him orders to clean the stable*.

Of the same character is the construction with other verbs expressing *will* as affecting other people: *to allow, ask, request, beg, recommend, permit, forbid, persuade*.

The character of the construction seems to be brought out by the following examples, some with the object and verb stem, the others with an object and a prepositional adjunct. It may be observed, however, that *to persuade*, unlike the other verbs of this group, never takes a construction of the fifth type; the same may be said of *to seduce* and *to provoke*.

Despite his (i. e. Pertinax's) unimpeachable conduct, Commodus's informers are said to have tried to persuade their master to accuse Pertinax of treason.

Oman, Conquest p. 127.

(He) had never thought of suggesting to Godfrey that he should frighten or persuade the old fellow into lending the money on the excellent security of the young Squire's prospects. Eliot, Silas Marner ch. 4.

I do hope your friend, Daisy Harland, won't persuade you into wanting to appear as a female acrobat.

Mackenzie, Seven Ages of Woman ch. 3 p. 121.

There is one fact that has frequently tended to prevent the recognition of language as a merely conventional system of sound symbols, that has seduced the popular mind into attributing to it an instinctive basis that it does not possess. Sapir, Language p. 2.

It is he who is provoking the old gentleman's head
to swell. Punch, 27/7, 21.

But it was not Professor Stoll but Mr. Robertson and Mr. Eliot whose theories "provoked" Mr. Brock, as he tells us, into publishing this little book.

Times Lit. 8/5, 22.

248. In the fifth sentence the pronoun can in no way be considered an object of *wish*, but only the subject of the following stem. The group of pronoun and verb stem cannot be analysed, it is completely inseparable. The term *object with verb stem* is meant to express this character of the group.

249. It would be wrong to restrict the term *object with verb stem* to the constructions with verbs of this last type. For the same interpretation is necessary when verbs of type 4 are construed with a non-personal object, as in the following sentences (*a*), or with a reflexive object (*b*).

a. We have allowed nature to become strange to us, and are on that account very impressionable to her surfaces.

In the first place, the forest, first of pine and then of oak, spread over Western Europe, and the grassy plains which had erstwhile allowed great herds to roam, were very much reduced.

Fleure, Races of Mankind p. 17.

The stubborn paganism of London compelled the seat of the southern archbishop to remain at Canterbury.

Wakeman, Introd. p. 14.

Chapman once sprained his ankle at football, and did not permit the incident to fade from anybody's recollection.

Pett Ridge, Garland p. 221.

But the thick obscurity permitted only sky-lines to be visible of any scene at present.

Hardy, Native I ch. 5 p. 48.

b. Religion is man's oldest and greatest possession. And it is one of which it is certain that he will never allow himself to be deprived. Times Lit. 24/3, 21.

250. Verbs of type 3 sometimes require the same interpretation. Some of them may perhaps be considered as examples of type 4.

It seemed as if he knew she could not bear him to look at her just then. Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 8.

It will no doubt take some little time for things to settle down, for a breathing space must be given to enable embittered feelings to become calm. Observer, 29/1, 22.

The settlement of the strike at Glasgow of the firemen engaged in the coastwise trade enables the services to and from the Clyde to be resumed. Times, 28/8, 20.

251. Even constructions of type 2 cannot be analysed sometimes so that we must look upon them as cases of an object with verb stem.

She reclined, and charmingly left them to manufacture the evening for her. Bennett, Roll-Call I ch. 8 § 2.

"Of course I shall be back for tea."

"Oh, yes m'm!" Ada agreed, as though saying, "Need you tell me that, m'm? I know you would never leave the master to have his tea alone¹⁾."

Bennett, These Twain I ch. 7.

1) It would give good sense if we interpreted *the master* as a real object, and the verb stem as an adjunct of result. But this is of no grammatical importance, for it would not be in accordance with the linguistic sense of the writer. Compare also:

And what the difficulties of explanation were, I leave you to imagine.
de Morgan, Vance ch. 17.

Sally ran straight upstairs, leaving Anne (i.e. the servant in the kitchen) to close the door (i.e. the front door).

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 26 p. 285.

252. The name object with stem will be applied to all the constructions of types 3, 4 and 5; also, where convenient, to that of type 2. When it is found necessary to distinguish between the construction with a real object and the one with a noun or pronoun that cannot be interpreted as an object, we may call the former a *separable*, the latter an *inseparable* group of noun with verb stem¹⁾.

It should also be considered that the very fact that a verb can be construed with an inseparable group of noun and verb stem can only be accounted for by assuming that what seems to be a separable group is not always so understood by English speakers: what else could have induced them to extend the construction to cases where the analysis of the separable group is out of the question? Here, as often elsewhere, the habit of logical analysis can only mislead the grammarian; what is of importance to him is the mental processes in the mind of native speakers.

253. The construction is found with a number of verbs that may be classed as verbs of cause and will: *allow, compel, command, force, get, induce, lead, oblige, order, permit, persuade, request, tell*. In literary English we also find *to cause* and *to suffer* used in the same way.

The following examples chiefly illustrate the inseparable type (252). Observe that the meaning of a verb may be affected by the use of the construction, as in the last quotations with *to mean*.

George was impressed by the scene, and he eagerly allowed it to impress him.

Bennett, Roll-Call, I ch. 8 § 2.

1) The terms *separable* and *inseparable* do not refer to the order of words: see 260.

(The world) will persist in reading those books which allow themselves to be read most easily.

Times Lit. 19/10, 22.

I never could get the section to lie down simultaneously.

Punch 31/2, 15.

The sloping stroke through the tail of the *p* — forming the contraction for *per* — might be disregarded by the scribe, or might help the *p* to look more like *z*.

Corr. Times Lit. 12/6, 1924.

He induced the chiefs to allow their sons to be trained in liberal arts. Somervell, Hist. of England p. 12.

He heard a slight noise in front, which led him to halt. Hardy, Native I ch. 8 p. 86.

By one of those odd chances which lead those that lurk in unexpected corners to be discovered, while the obvious are passed by . . .

Hardy, Ironies (To Please his Wife ch. 4).

My friend Latouche . . . had persuaded me to go with him. James, Daisy Miller p. 243.

Clara permitted herself to smile.

Sidgwick, Severins ch. 7 p. 68.

Her "garden," in the phrase which used to cause Samuel to think how extraordinarily feminine she was!

Bennett, Old W. Tale IV ch. 2 § 1.

Her sins lie upon the head of those who suffer her . . . to grow up without religion.

Besant, Orange Girl (NED).

"Do you mean me to meet him, Max?" asked Mrs. Manfield. Hichens, Way of Ambition, ch. 1.

He didn't mean them to think he meant them to hear.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 26 p. 280.

I shall tell him that you have been here; and that I mean you to come again.

Blackmore, Lorna Doone ch. 67 p. 513.

254. The object with stem is also used with *to forbid*; this is probably by the analogy of *to command*, its semantic opposite.

My clerical position forbade me to swear at them.

Mackenzie, Rich Relatives ch. 7 p. 195.

... bound to the soil which they were forbidden to leave. Somervell, Hist. of Engl. p. 18.

This had the effect of muffling and crushing the conversation and quite forbidding anybody to be cheerful in any circumstances. Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 12 p. 144.

255. It is natural to find that *to bring* can be used with an object and verb stem, for it is a synonym of *to induce*. There is an inseparable group when the stem is *to bear*.

I cannot quite bring myself to write that in the Hat period (i.e. when my father wore a hat instead of a cap) my Mother became kinder to me.

de Morgan, Vance ch. 16.

Dr. Robertson may well be congratulated on the courage and sympathy which he has brought to bear upon a difficult situation. Pilot 24/10, 1903 p. 387/2.

English anthropologists have been bringing intensive study to bear upon nearly every native race in tropical regions. Times Lit. 18/3, 15.

We have a similar case in *I gave him to understand*, *I led him to believe*.

256. Some verbs that take the construction, though not plainly denoting cause, are related to these in meaning. Such are *to leave*, and *to trust*, as in the following sentences.

From four hundred to four hundred and fifty each might carry them through their terms with such great economy as she knew she could trust them to practise.

Hardy, Ironies p. 55.

"Kezia," said the grandmother, "can I trust you to carry the lamp?" Mansfield, Bliss p. 11.

The moment was hers. He trusted her to make the best of it. Temple Thurston, City I ch. 18.

Surely the eternal love she believed in through all the sadness of her lot, would not leave her child to wander farther and farther into the wilderness till there was no turning. Eliot, Clerical Life (Janet ch. 5).

(The judge) generally comments upon the evidence given on both sides, tells the jury what the issues or points in dispute between the parties are, tells them what is the law which applies to the case, and then leaves them¹⁾ to find their verdict. Ruegg, Engl. Law p. 187.

Very well, Mother. You're the doctor. I'll do my best not to throw them together when next Hobart comes over. But we must leave the children to settle their affairs for themselves.

Rose Macaulay, Potterism I ch. 4 § 6 p. 50.

257. The second class of verbs taking the object with stem are the verbs expressing wish: *desire*, *want*, *wish*, *like*, *prefer*, and the verb *to hate*, expressing what may be called the opposite of *to like* (compare *to forbid* in 254).

The verbs of wish differ from those of will in that they refer to a state of mind, whereas the verbs of will express determination to act upon another person. The construction, consequently, with the verbs of wish is always of the inseparable type. Observe, however, that *to desire* and *to want*, and occasionally *to wish*, are 'transitional' cases, for they may express will as well as wish. The use of *to desire* is limited chiefly to literary English.

I want you to let me go. You have never cared in the least for me and you do not want me here.

Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 9 p. 109.

They wanted to keep him there, that was evident. Or, at any rate, they didn't want him to see the Procession. ib. II ch. 4 p. 186.

1) Of course the judge does not leave the court, although the jury may, and generally does.

What was there that they wanted him to avoid? ib. ib.

And if I am taken away, Utterson, I wish you to promise me that you will bear with him.

Stevenson, Dr. Jekyll p. 35.

But I'd prefer to be poor, and him to be rude and cross and impatient — which he scarcely ever is — than have this feeling all the time.

Bennett, These Twain III ch. 20 § 7.

"I should have preferred you to see Mr. Peel-Swynnerton here," said Constance. ib. IV ch. 3 § 4.

(They) preferred art to be for the sake of art only.

Rose Macaulay, Told by an Idiot II, x (T.) p. 104.

How would you like your mother to marry Mr. Fenwick?

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 6 p. 52.

"You know I hate you to talk about him," Margaret interrupted. Mackenzie, Guy and Pauline ch. 1, p. 23.

It was Blanche who asked him whether he liked women to hunt. Thackeray, Pendennis ch. 45.

She could not bear to smile or to be gay, "because she hated God to hear her laugh, as if she had not repented of her sin."

Lytton Strachey, Em. Vict. p. 118.

I do not thank you for that. I should hate it to be all smooth. Indeed, I think I like you to desert me a little now and then. Hardy, Native I ch. 9 p. 99.

258. Closely allied to the verbs of wish are *to expect* and *to thank* as used in the following quotations (*a*). Observe, however, that *to expect* is sometimes rather a verb of will. But *expect* more frequently expresses 'to anticipate' without any implication of a wish; in this sense it can also take an object with verb stem as well as a verb stem only, which is of the type of 243, 1 (*b*).

a. They expected the widowed Queen to give her heir the opportunities of putting his qualifications for public responsibility to the test without delay.

Sidney Lee, quoted Engl. 19th Cent. II p. 7.

I'll thank you not to interfere.

Well, you can't expect her to have gloves.

Bennett, Old W. T. IV ch. 3 § 1.

Nobody expects you to make a martyr of yourself¹⁾.

b. I don't expect to get there before five.

I don't expect this fine weather to continue.

259. The object with verb stem with to is also found with a good many of the verbs that can take an object and plain stem (195). It is most convenient to treat these cases (e. g. *It is a book full of matter making one furiously to think*. Rev. of Rev. Jan. 1910) in the next chapter on *Verbals Compared*.

260. The object and the verb stem are not generally separated by other elements of the sentence, but such a word-order is possible, as is shown by the following example.

Stephen had been wanting him, perhaps, all this time to come to him but had been afraid that he might be interfering if he asked him.

Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 7 § 2 p. 81.

261. It has been shown that the verb stem as an adjunct to verbs with an object leads to a special construction that has been called the object with verb stem. Something similar has occurred with the verb stem when used as an adjunct to nouns, adjectives, less often verbs requiring a prepositional adjunct; thus by the side of *It is easy to do that* we find *It will be easy for you to do that*. The prepositional group serves primarily as an adjunct to the noun, adjective, or

1) V. d. Gaaf, Eng. Studien 62, p. 409.

verb that precedes, but it incidentally denotes the subject of the verb stem.

a. But he has told us so often that it's no use to him to live like that.

Gissing, New Grub Street ch. 1.

b. It is very kind of you to say so, I'm sure.

It is often observable, that the older a man gets, the more difficult it is to him to retain a believing conception of his own death. Eliot, Silas Marner ch. 5.

... — no easy thing for Mrs. Pascoe's blowzy thunderings to conquer, but something vastly amusing apparently for Grandfather Westcott to watch.

Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 10 § 3 p. 118.

The conditions are in your favour, and it is up to you to succeed. Star 6/9, 1927.

c. He handed it (viz. the telegram) to her to read.

Galsworthy, Freeland ch. 34 p. 340.

William Morris began the modern theory of the practical value of art, but left it to others to work it out. Times Lit. 15/2, 18.

I was a perfect *Helluo Librorum*¹⁾, even when the books were exercise books and called upon me to translate unconnected statements into Latin.

De Morgan, Vance ch. 12.

This is a private matter, and I beg of you to let it sleep. Stevenson, Jekyll p. 34.

She trusted to them to make the arrangements concerning her will. Mem. Verney Family I 243.

They were pleading to him to stop.

Walpole, Fortitude II ch. 4 p. 182.

As he reminds us in the introduction, he was singularly fortunate in his advisers; he could depend on them to interpret with full knowledge and insight the wishes and points of view of other countries.

Times Lit. 1/10, 25.

1) Swallower of books.

It was indeed of the greatest advantage that during these ten years Lord Grey had to work with men who knew this country so well as Cambon and Beckendorff; and he could rely on them to exercise a calming influence on any apprehensions that might arise in Paris or Petersburg.

ib. ib.

262. As in the case of the plain object with stem a shifting would almost inevitably occur, the prepositional group from being primarily an adjunct to the preceding word turning into a subject of the verb stem although the connection with the preceding word need not be broken completely. This may apply to a few of the quotations of 261, as to the third quotation under *b*, and perhaps the two last of *c*; it clearly applies to the following cases.

When a man of letters who is not by trade a writer of fiction surprises us late in his career with a first novel, as the editor of the *Spectator* does with the Madonna of the Barricades, we can generally count on the pleasure he took in writing it to give an exhilaration to its pages. Times Lit. 8/10, 1925 p. 654/2.

The regulations allow of only two preservatives to be used in food and drink¹⁾.

Dr. Arbuthnot, Graphic 28/11 28.

Besides I want to see that boy of mine's being brought up properly. I look forward to him to be the bread-winner when his poor father is past work¹⁾.

Pett Ridge, Mrs. Galer's Business p. 244 (Nelson).

263. The sentences quoted in the preceding section show that English has a prepositional object with verb stem in the same sense as we take the term object with verb stem in the case of the verbs of wish: the prepositional group is essentially a means of indicating the

1) Arvid Smith in *Moderna Språk*, Dec. 1929.

subject of the stem. The construction has not extended very far, however, except in the case of the preposition *for*. We must, consequently, deal with this use more fully, and finally attempt to account for the exceptional position of this preposition in these constructions.

264. The double interpretation of the prepositional group may often seem possible to a student who tries to analyse a sentence. But for native speakers the very fact that in numberless cases the group with *for* has no other function than the one of expressing the subject of the verb stem influences their appreciation of cases when both interpretations may seem equally 'logical'.

In the following quotations the two interpretations might be supposed to be both possible, although there is no doubt that an English speaker understands the prepositional adjunct as indicating the subject of the verb stem.

The night is too dark for us to move in.

Cooper, *Spy*¹⁾.

In the last century it became more and more the custom for boys to be at home or with friends from Saturday till Monday. Westminster School.

He had cared so much for the Earl of Dorincourt and his pleasures that there had been no time for him to think of other people. Fauntleroy, Gruno ed. p. 46.

I consider that the time has come for me to follow in the footsteps of my ancestors. Marj. Bowen,

I Will Maintain, 86.

265. In the following sentences the shifting is complete: the prepositional group serves as a subject to the verb stem, although it is not disconnected from the preceding word.

The girls made way for him to pass them at the head of the twisting stairs.

Bennett, Old W. T. I ch. 1 § 3.

1) Stoffel, *Studies in English* p. 74.

The risks of war are too momentous, and the inevitable and lasting set-back to progress is too grave for any nation lightly to engage in hostilities.

Academy, 17/8, 12.

There was too much fascination, too great a sense of entanglement in Lady John's private company for Steve to look on it with complete indifference.

Patterson, Stephen Compton, p. 221.

It was doubtless a step in advance for the law to admit that insanity was a disease. Athenaeum, 9/11, 12.

A book of this kind divides itself, as naturally as some other things, into three parts. There are the editor's remarks, which, of course, are, like all critical remarks, for its readers to accept or not, as they choose . . .

Saintsbury in Everyman, 25/4, 13.

266. In the following sentences the noun (or pronoun) with *for* is not an adjunct to the preceding noun (*a*), adjective (*b*) or verb (*c*), but exclusively the subject of the following verb stem.

a. It's no use for you to be angry with me.

Sinister Street p. 1051.

It's no good for Mr. Lloyd George to attempt to cure the gathered ill of a century with half an hour or so of eloquence. Wells, What is Coming p. 110.

No. I don't sigh for that. There are other things for me to sigh for. Hardy, Return of the Native IV ch. 2.

b. After luncheon, Mrs. Hamley went to rest, in preparation for Roger's return; and Molly also retired to her own room, feeling that it would be better for her to remain there until dinner-time and so to leave the father and mother to receive their boy in privacy.

Gaskell, Wives I ch. 8.

The opening years of Elizabeth's reign are of such importance in the development of both Church and State that it is scarcely possible for too much attention to be devoted to this period of the nation's history by genuine historical students.

He expressed himself, of course, with excentric *abandon* — it would have been impossible for him to do otherwise; but he was content to indicate his deepest feelings with a fleer. Lytton Strachey, *Em. Vict.* p. 292.

And he goes on to argue that these are values and experiences too great for us to surrender, and that we are entitled to demand for them the only ground on which they can stand. Bailey, *Question of Taste* p. 6.

c. But one longs for a novelist to arise with the breadth of national and intellectual horizons of M. Romain Rolland's "Jean Christophe". *Nation*, 12/7, 13.

Fact is, she whispered, two friends of mine have just come in. Ladies in the same establishment. It would never do for them to see me.

Pett Ridge, *Name of Garland*.

Observe that this interpretation depends upon the nature of the sentence, for in similar cases a double interpretation might be possible.

It is impossible for me to alter my plans now.

267. Finally, the construction with *for* is used, with nouns and adjectives, in such a way that it is clearly nothing but the subject of the stem. The construction cannot be interpreted in any other manner:

- (1) when it occurs after adjectives and nouns in a way that precludes the double interpretation of 263.
- (2) when *for* is followed by the meaningless words *it* or *there*.
- (3) when the adjunct with *for* is separated from the adjective or noun, by intervening words, or by a pause.
- (4) when it opens the sentence.

I. It was far too much of a gala day for the work of the little town to go forward with its usual regularity.
Gaskell, *Wives I* ch. 2.

When Dyson had got accustomed to the sound he declared himself willing for Humphrey to try again.
Montgomery, Misunderstood.

"I had to tell Miss Verney," Pauline explained.
"I am delighted for Miss Verney to know," said Guy.
Mackenzie, Guy and Pauline p. 133.

She was so anxious that no trace of the tempest that had passed over her should be left for Sally to see in the morning that she got as quickly as possible to bed. de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 43 p. 479.

Of course she was glad for him to like Margaret...
Guy and Pauline p. 65.

The last statement, remarkable as it is, sounds true; for it would have been still more remarkable for the King to have invented it. Times Lit. 18/9, 24.

Henry II only crushed the barons with the help of the lower orders and of ministers raised from the ranks. It was left for his sons to alienate the support which he had enlisted. Pollard, Hist. of Engl. ch. 2 p. 52.

Just half a second for this sickness to go off, and he would act. de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 46 p. 500.

It is folly or were wanton self-deception for you to pretend that you can live by poetry.
Mackenzie, Guy and Pauline p. 235.

If as she feared he was feeling hostile to religion she would accept the warning of the night and give all her determination to prayer for his faith to return. ib. p. 311.

When he sat down... there were cries for the motion to be put. Patterson, Stephen Compton, p. 332.

There is always a tendency, a dangerous tendency, as literature accumulates, for poetry to develop a language of its own. Abercrombie, Poetry and Cont. Speech.

Sir Austin signified his opinion that a boy should obey his parent, by giving orders to Benson for Ripton's box to be packed and ready before noon.

Meredith, R. Feverel, p. 42.

2. We should be sorry for there to be many more additions to the literature of Stevenson's life in the South Seas.

The address "The Religion of Humanity" attracted at the time it was delivered a sufficient amount of interest for it to be unnecessary here to do more than record the fact of its republication.

Chaucer was not so well off for subjects for it to be probable that if he learnt this story from Petrarch in 1373 he would have left it unused for a dozen years or more.

Chaucer, *Globe* ed. p. XXV.

It stands to reason that it can't be right for all the wealth to be in the pockets of the few, and for there to be a distinct and cocky governing class.

Ernest Raymond, *Tell England* XII, 154.

3. It may be reasonably premised that nothing can be more unhealthy than for a party to find itself strong in the House of Commons but weak in the Constituencies.

Oxf. and Camb. Rev. n°. 16.

It was as unsafe for a story-teller to depart from the well-marked lines of inherited tradition as *for him to disregard* orthodox belief.

Schofield, Eng. Lit. to Chaucer p. 6.

From the OE period down to the present day there has always been a tendency to weaken the vowels in unaccented syllables, and then often for the weakened vowels to disappear.

Wright, El. MnE Grammar § 141.

Perhaps it must be admitted that interference in Armenia was too perilous for the general peace of the world *for us to undertake*.

R. le Gallienne, in Engl. 19th Cent. II p. 138.

Quite alright for us for you to arrive at any time.
Private postcard.

He will be glad. Come and see him yourself, for him to thank you.

Besant and Rice, *My Little Girl* p. 121.

4. For Count Czernin's statement to be true M.

Clemenceau would have had to have taken the initiative in the matter before he became Prime Minister^{1).}

Times W. 12/4, 18.

But for this to be worked into some great structure of epic poetry, the Heroic Age must be capable of producing individuality of much profounder nature than any of its fighting champions.

Abercrombie, The Epic p. 16.

For this desirable consummation to be feasible it is, however, expedient that... Times W. 23/11 1914.

268. It may seem that front-position of the *for*-adjunct is not in itself a proof of its new function. For other prepositional adjuncts may also have front-position: *For your brother it would be an excellent change.* It should be considered, however, that front-position in such cases is necessarily emphatic, which it is not in the case of the adjunct serving as a subject to the stem.

269. The function of the *for*-adjunct as the subject of the stem is also indicated by the pause which often separates it from the preceding part of the sentence. In the following cases the pause is indicated by the punctuation.

He only needed to read a passage over once casually, for it to be impressed on his mind ever afterwards.

Morison, Macaulay^{2).}

"Cousin Tom," said mother, and trying to get so³⁾ that Annie and I could not hear her; "it would be a sad and unkinlike thing, for you to despise our dwelling-house."

Blackmore, Lorna Doone ch. II.

And why not take some of this delightful toadstool with him, for them to eat. Wells, Country p. 251.

1) Note that the prepositional object with stem in this sentence has the function of a free adjunct.

2) Stoffel, *Studies in English* p. 73.

3) i.e. to gain such a position.

270. The prepositional object with stem is also found with verbs which can take a noun-adjunct with *for*: *to arrange, care, wait, long*, etc. See 266, c.

Or should she telegraph to Muriel and ask her to arrange for a trustworthy person to escort the child.
Mackenzie, *Seven Ages of Woman* ch. 7 p. 277.

Well, confound him, it wasn't to be expected that he should much care for his wife to write for the *Fact*.
Rose Macaulay, *Potterism* II ch. 3 p. 85 f.

The enterprise of Messrs. T. Nelson & Sons and the friendly accommodation of Messrs. Macmillan render possible this collection in one cover of all the short stories by me that I care for anyone to read again.

Wells, *Country of the Blind*, Introd.

Adelaide knows quite well she has lots of friends I should not care for you to yacht with.

Hichens, *Ambition* ch. 5 p. 53.

George waited for Irene Wheeler to begin to talk. She did not begin to talk. Bennett, *Roll-Call* I ch. 6.

Constance rang the bell for Maggie to clear the table.
Bennett, *Old W.* Tale II ch. 1 § 1.

The Liberals are urgently pressing for a decision to be made. Times W. 2/2, 17.

When they planned for me to stop till to-morrow, I didn't like saying how very, very much I wanted to go home. Gaskell, *Wives* I ch. 2.

I can never believe... it can be ever be meant for me to settle down to peace and comfort in a simple household. Blackmore, *Lorna Doone* ch. 35 p. 231.

John would need every penny that he earned to support the woman whom she longed for him to make his wife. Temple Thurston, *City* III ch. 2.

And then (he) sat on and waited — waited as for a rescue — for Sally to come and fill up the house with her voice and her indispensable self.

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 16 p. 160.

Nancy, casting her eye around the farm kitchen one

dismal afternoon, while she waited for her irons to heat, thought how dull and shabby it looked.

Freeman, Joseph ch. 13 p. 112.

She longed for him to say something...

Mackenzie, Guy and Pauline p. 74.

271. When the *for*-construction is used with *to hope*, *wish*, *like*, *love*; it may seem to be different from the cases in the preceding section, because these verbs do not require a *for*-adjunct, and the last two rarely take it. But they *can* take such an adjunct with a noun and pronoun, and are essentially identical with the preceding cases. In both, the *for*-adjunct is disconnected from the preceding verb and serves exclusively for a subject of the verb stem.

The desire of the working-classes, many of them now better off than they have ever been, is for a better life for their children than they have had themselves, and it is in the leisure years of childhood, above all, that they hope for their children to find it.

Times Ed. S. 22/5, 19.

I do think that after all these months of hoping for your poem to be a success that you ought at least to try them first... Mackenzie, Guy and Pauline p. 331.

I would like for you to tell the story I told you to your uncle¹⁾. Everett Green, Miss Malory of Mote p. 111.

We must get this matter settled before I go back to Magda;... she'll love for me to go with you — and I should like it too. ib. p. 210.

Molly could not imagine how she had at one time wished for her father's eyes to be opened.

Gaskell, Wives II p. 279 (ib. I ch. 12 p. 214; ch. 13 p. 232).

He wished for Stella and Alan to have all the benisons of the world²⁾. Sinister Street p. 816.

1) v. d. Gaaf, *Engl. Studien* 62 p. 408.

2) Compare *wish* with a pronoun-adjunct with *for*:

She'd a good home, and everything she could wish for.

Galsworthy, Man of Property ch. 3 p. 56.

272. There are very few verbs that cannot take *for*-adjuncts with a noun and pronoun though they take the prepositional object with stem. Examples are here given of *to agree*, *expect*, *want* and *dread*. The construction seems to be less restricted in dialectal English; it is certainly now pushing its way into Standard English.

I ought to hurry back; but he wanted to prevent Major Roper coming round and getting worn himself; so we agreed for me to come. I'll just give my message and come back.

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 23 p. 236.

I do not, however, think that Magdalena herself . . . had expected for new callers to present themselves.

Everett Green, *Miss Mallory of Mote*.

My heart ached and ached and ached. I wanted so for her to die. If she had asked me to do it, I would have ended her life with an injection of morphine, but she said nothing. Mary Borden, *Jane — Our Stranger*,

II ch. 7 p. 298.

This was a miserable hour for Michael, who all the time was dreading many unfortunate events, as for the cabman to get down from his box and quarrel about the fare, or for the train to be full, or for Stella to be sick during the journey, or for him and her to lose Nurse, or for all of them to get into the wrong train, or for a railway accident to happen, or for any of the uncomfortable contingencies to which seaside travellers were liable.

Sinister Street p. 79 f.

273. Perhaps *to take* might have been included in the preceding section.

It takes one hundred years or more for the Copernican system to get itself established.

Bailey, *Question of Taste* p. 7.

274. The quotations of 272 have shown that the *for*-construction is not only a substitute for the plain object

with verb stem in the case of verbs that do not take the latter construction (such as *to hope* and *to dread*), but is also a competitor of the other construction: thus in the case of *to like*, *love*, *wish*, *want*, *expect*. This is also the case with *to ask* and *to beg* in the following quotations.

Somehow, he rather disliked asking for Molly to prolong her visit. Gaskell, *Wives I* ch. 7 p. 113.

I guess your request. I make it before you do.
I beg for dear little Molly to stay on here.

ib. ch. 7 p. 114.

275. The quotations of 274 are instructive: they show that one reason for taking the *for*-construction instead of the plain object-with-stem is that the latter prevents the noun (*Molly*) from being taken for an adjunct to the leading verb that precedes it (*asking*, *beg*).

In the case of *to wish* (see the last two quotations of 271) it seems to the present writer that the *for*-construction carries the event or state into the unknown, perhaps distant, future, whereas the plain object-with-stem (*wished her father's eyes to be opened*, *wished Stella and Alan to have*) refers to what practical people call the present. The *for*-construction consequently seems to occupy a place that in other languages is sometimes occupied by a 'future infinitive'.

276. The *for*-construction, like the plain object-connecting words with-stem, is essentially an adjunct to a verb, noun, or adjective. It has been shown that the stem often takes a fuller connecting word than the simple *to*: *in order to*, *so as to* (230 ff.). This is never found in the case of the plain object-with-stem, rarely with the prepositional object-with-stem, at least in Standard English.

Exactly how much more was implied, whether *in order for an entry to be accepted* it was necessary for the

enterer to exhibit the authorization of the official licensers ... is an open question.

McKerrow, Bibliography p. 136.

**For-construction as
an independent
Group**

277. In all the preceding sections the *for*-construction serves as an adjunct to some noun or adjective, or to a verb.

But when this verb is *to be* used as a copula, the result is that the *for*-construction has the function of a nominal predicate. This is a very common construction.

I have decided that the best plan will be for you to be sent somewhere by me, to make a real thing of the excuse.

Hardy, Native II ch. 4 p. 155.

It may be remarked that the tendency in Jamaica had almost always hitherto been for the Crown officials to take the part of the negroes, and for the Jamaica authorities to side with the local magnates.

Justin McCarthy, Hist. of Our Own Times,
in Engl. 19th cent. II p. 20f.

The present tendency among the larger civilized nations is for each of them to use its own language in diplomacy, this practice having been begun, I believe, by Germany and Great Britain.

H. W. Steed in Mod. Languages 1929 p. 72.

The only expedient method by which land may be nationalised is for the State to buy it.

Everyman.

The reader, therefore, will have no right in future to complain that our literary criticism is too dogmatic. It will be for him to challenge our dogmatism, to criticise our criticisms.

Everyman, 3/1, 13.

278. In such a sentence as *It's no use for you to be angry with me* (266 a) it is evident that the *for*-construction qualifies the predicative *no use*, so that it may be defined as its adjunct. But it is impossible, at the same time, not to see that the *for*-construction expresses what is 'no

use', i. e. that it serves as a subject. This interpretation applies to the following sentences.

It is better for a municipal election to be decided by political considerations than by considerations of social position.

The tales are not amusing. It is good for this to be said bluntly. It is perfectly true.

279. The *for*-construction is clearly an independent element of the sentence when it opens it as a grammatical subject.

For her not to go would look as if she were afraid of meeting him. London Magaz. July 1918.

For man to reclaim much of this man-made wilderness will be hard and within the life of modern explosives at least, dangerous work. Times W. 11/5, 17.

For a woman to look at her best is a point of discipline as much as that the British soldier shall shave, even under fire. ib. 21/12, 17.

It is, however, devoutly to be desired that the incident will not close without a searching inquiry. For thirteen houses to collapse suddenly, argues surely, that there is something rotten in their condition.

Everyman, 5/9, 13.

Talking in private I hope still may do good. But for me to attempt to discuss the merits of the question this afternoon can do no good. Daily News.

There was nothing for it but for Gaston to go, and go quickly, though the moment was rather awkward.

Henry James, Reverberator, p. 123.

There is nothing for it but for men of education to carry the war into the enemy's camp.

Oxf. and Camb. Rev. n°. 16.

In the eyes of a British jury for a woman to offer a reason for doing anything only makes her offence the blacker. Chapin, New Morality, in Brit. Pl. p. 561.

Use of for 280. It has been tried to show in the preceding sections how natural it is for a prepositional adjunct to a noun, adjective, or verb, if it incidentally serves to express the subject of a following verbal form, to come to be used exclusively in this last function. It remains, however to explain why this shifting has taken place, not, indeed, exclusively (261 f.) but nearly so, in the case of *for*.

Perhaps the most important cause of this special position of *for* is its frequency. A great many adjectives, such as *easy*, *difficult*, *hard*, *pleasant*; also many nouns or verbs (*arrangement*, *to arrange*) can freely take it, to denote the person concerned. The following sentence contains two cases, both perfectly natural.

Of course it is a duty for Judith to kill Holofernes, and it is the proper alternative for her to choose.

Essays and Studies 13 p. 24.

Other prepositions are occasionally found, but these cases are a minority, and frequently would allow of *for* being substituted, not vice versa.

It is often observable, that the older a man gets, the more difficult it is *to him* to retain a believing conception of his own death. Eliot, *Silas Marner* ch. 5.

281. Another cause is the possibility of emphasizing the final meaning of the verb stem by using *for* to connect the noun and the leading word: this second meaning of *for* has already been alluded to in 208. This meaning of *for* is plain in many of the quotations in the preceding sections, but the following seem to be very instructive in this respect.

We have already referred to the trackway system of the megalithic culture in England, but it needs a little more extensive treatment for the reader to grasp the idea, first, of a grouping of settlements upon a systematic plan ... Massingham, *Pre-Roman Britain* p. 19 f.

"I have found you a gown after all."

"Where is it?"

"Where is it?" her uncle repeated. "Why, waiting upstairs in your bedroom, of course, for you to put it on ..." Mackenzie, Rich Relatives ch. 12, p. 298.

Observe that in the last quotation the use of *it* (*to put it on*) proves the complete separation of the *for*-construction from *waiting upstairs*.

282. The meaning of *for* in the construction can also be shown negatively: when *for* does not express the meanings mentioned we cannot use the construction with the verb stem.

No Danish inroads are recorded in his day: this does not prove that none took place, but there is such an ample list of ravagings in the Frankish realms and in Ireland during 859–60 that it is easy to account for *England being spared* for the moment.

Oman, Conquest p. 433.

Similarly, although *agree* can take the *for*-construction, we must use a different construction when no future arrangement is to be expressed.

I do not *agree with you in thinking* her right in refusing a second marriage.

Meredith, Harrington ch. 47 p. 471.

283. The character of the *for*-construction also comes out when we study the cases when a verb takes both the plain and the prepositional object-with-stem: this has been indicated in 275.

284. In dealing with the object-with-plain stem it has been stated (200) that the construction is restricted to the stems that denote an action or occurrence, and is never used with a stem expressing a state. The distinction is natural, for in the case of verbs expressing actions or occurrences

the group is a much closer unit, the action and its agent or the occurrence and its source, being a closer group in the mind of the speaker, than with verbs expressing a state. An outwardly similar construction is possible, however, with the latter class: *No one could possibly enter his rooms without perceiving him to be a man of wealth* (Galsworthy, *Man of Property* ch. 3. p. 43). It seems evident that the functions of each element of the group *perceiving him to be* can be distinguished more satisfactorily than in the apparently parallel *seeing him run away*. We may grant that *him* is to be interpreted as an object in both cases, but if *to be* is called a predicative adjunct to this object, it will be impossible to account for *run away* in the same manner. But if we fail to account for *run away* our 'interpretation' of the preceding *him* is shown to be without foundation. And with regard to *perceive*, etc., though the interpretation of the stem as a predicative adjunct may seem more acceptable, it should be considered that the stem with *to* is never used as a predicative adjunct to the object of many verbs that are construed with an object and predicative noun or adjective. See the sections on *Sentence Structure* (vol. 3), and compare 100 on the ing in this function (*I call that stretching veracity too far*).

The two constructions do not only differ in their grammatical character: they also belong to different planes of English. Whereas the object-with-plain stem is one of the most frequent constructions in English, with the firmest 'roots' in the language of every speaker, the object-with-predicative stem with *to*, though found with the same verbs and with verbs that are identical with them in meaning or closely related to them, is almost exclusively restricted to what may be called literary English. The term 'literary' English should not be taken to mean the language of artists, but the language of those who habitually handle the pen, or

the typewriter. With regard to a number of verbs that take the construction, its character is also stated in the following passage: The truth is that "oratio obliqua" (i. e. in classical Latin) was a highly artificial device of the literary style, probably as alien to the common speech as the diction "I know him to be a good man", is to our vernacular English (Times Lit. 6/4, 22).

285. The object and predicative stem with *to* is used with many verbs denoting a sensation or a perception (including *to feel, hear, see*) and an expression of opinion (*verba sentiendi et declarandi*): to ascertain, assume, believe, conceive, conclude, consider, denote, discover, doubt, fancy, fear, find, guess, hold, imagine, know, note, observe, perceive, presume, recognize, remember, suppose, suspect, think, understand; to acknowledge, admit, assert, confess, declare, deny, maintain, proclaim, pronounce, report, state, swear, warrant, etc.

A good many of the verbs enumerated cannot take a real personal object so that the analysis of the construction attempted in the preceding section is shown to be inadequate. In the following illustrative sentences the stem is a verb expressing condition or state, generally *to be*. Both the familiar verbs that take an object-with-plain stem when an action or occurrence is referred to (*a*) and the more literary words enumerated above (*b*) are instanced.

a. She *felt her feet to be* stone-cold on the floor.

Bennett, Old W. Tale III ch. 7 § 1.

I have lingered thus long over Balzac, because I *feel his case to be* so instructive. Huxley, Vulgarity p. 50.

George *felt himself to be* within the sphere of unguessed and highly perturbing forces.

Bennett, Roll-Call I ch. 8 § 2.

As he stood on the pavement by the fountain and watched them all passing by — just like what he had

heard the Lord Mayor's Show to be — he heard one lady in a carriage say to her companion — “Look at that little boy!” Temple Thurston, Thirteen I p. 26.

b. . . . (*things*) that we have no right to *assume to be* any concern of ours.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 3 p. 20.

The singular *practice* that we *believe to exist* in many families of keeping back all information about testamentary dispositions as long as possible from the persons they concern, especially minors, had been observed in her case.

ib. ch. 8 p. 69.

These views we believe to be fair and true.

Times W. 22/3, 18.

She *discovered Constance to be* a little better, as regards the neuralgia. Bennett, Old W. Tale IV ch. 3 § 1.

Amid the rustles which *denoted her to be* undressing in the darkness other heavy breaths frequently came.

Hardy, Native I ch. 6 p. 76.

Derek told Margery that she was cold. She *discovered it to be* true.

D. C. Jones, Everlasting Search II ch. 16 p. 281.

Charmian *guessed him to be* twenty-six or twenty-seven. Hichens, Ambition ch. 2.

And she *knew herself to be* sagacious and prudent. Bennett, Old W. Tale I ch. 3 § 5.

Soames *noted his dress-clothes to be* well-cut. Galsworthy, Man of Property.

Peter sneezed, and was suddenly conscious of a large woman *whom he knew by instinct to be* Mrs. Brockett. Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 12 p. 140.

The second Mrs. Samphire *maintained Betty to be* a spoiled beauty before she was out of pinafores.

Vachell, Brothers I ch. 4 p. 58.

I am puzzled by the note, which seems to *prove him to be* still alive. Stevenson, Dr Jekyll. p. 75.

James *showed himself to be* a master of these simple arts. Vachell, Quinneys' p. 200.

Tradition states him to have been steward to the Abbot of Glastonbury. Times W. 19/10, 17.

At first the Crescent supposed her to be a widow, for Mr. Crewe was never forthcoming.

Sidgwick, Severins ch. I.

On account of their ill-judgment in thinking her to be a fool. Trollope, Framley ch. 24 p. 237.

286. It is possible, however, for some at least of the verbs enumerated, to be construed with an object and verb stem expressing an occurrence, more rarely an action.

It is true, I imagine myself to have made a discovery¹⁾. Butler, Erewhon ch. I p. I.

For as long as it lasted I never observed him to draw breath. Stevenson, Ballantrae.

As he raised his head upon my coming, I thought I could perceive his countenance to lighten.

Stevenson, Ballantrae.

The early Middle Ages, which we may take to end at about 1300. Somervell, Hist. of England. p. 8.

By a Port one may understand them to indicate something unsympathetically impressive.

Meredith, Harrington ch. 2. p. 9.

Equally true of all faces of forty, do we understand you to say? de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 3 p. 20.

287. The following cases may seem doubtful, but possess and contain are probably best classed with the verbs expressing state.

Unlocking the case he found it to contain a necklace. Hardy, Tess ch. 34.

Beyond question his father was proving himself to possess a mind equal to the grand situation.

Bennett, Clayhanger II ch. 14.

1) Note, however, that the group *have made* expresses a state rather than an occurrence.

The removal of her anxiety about the future had developed qualities of cheerfulness which formerly no one would have *suspected* her to possess.

Gissing, New Grub Street ch. 2.

288. Some verbs that can take an object-with-stem with *to* can also be construed with a stem only.

This applies to the verbs expressing wish, when the subject of the stem is the same as the subject of the sentence (*I wish to see him*). It does not apply, naturally, to those which express will, i. e. a wish with regard to the action of other persons (*I ordered him to be present*).

We also find the construction with a stem only after many of the verbs mentioned in 285, such as *to fear, recollect, remember, think; to acknowledge, confess, declare, deny, proclaim, prove*.

289. A number of the verbs in 285, however, can take an object-with-stem only. When the subject of the stem is the same as that of the leading verb, it is expressed by a compound personal pronoun.

He believed himself to have been unfairly treated.

He fancied himself to be right.

The details we leave to the doctors, but we suppose ourselves to know the outlines. Laird p. 18.

290. The verbs that take an object with plain stem (*a*), treated in 193 ff., the verbs of causing and will (*b*), not of wish, treated in 242 ff., and the verba sentiendi et declarandi (*c*) of 285, can have their participle used in a verbal meaning with an adjunct containing a stem with *to*: *It is true he was rarely heard to speak, but smoked his pipe incessantly* (W. Irving, *Sketch-Book*). It may be useful to give a

number of sentences illustrating the use before we examine the character of the construction.

a. He was frequently *heard* to say that his first desire for knowledge, and his earliest passion for reading, were awakened by his mother.

For the standards of vulgarity are *seen* to change as you move vertically upwards through the strata of a single society. Huxley, *Vulgarity* p. 2.

She wore a black serge gown, with white collar and cuffs; her thick hair rippled low upon each side of the forehead, and behind was gathered into two loose vertical coils; in shadow the hue seemed black, but when illumined it was *seen* to be the darkest, warmest brown.

Gissing, *Odd Women* ch. 3.

And though they're her friends and not mine, I've been made to go too.

Mackenzie, *Guy and Pauline* ch. 2 p. 98.

They were bidden to conduct an English force to Gascony. Gardiner and Mullinger, *Introd.* p. 80.

Criminals have been known to jest even upon the scaffold.

b She is very like him in her contempt for mere sentiment, and for the 'cant' of which Boswell was *recommended* to clear his mind. Bradley, *Essays II* p. 14.

Yet the reader is *advised* not to be in any hurry with his kindly conclusions. C. Brontë, *Villette* ch. 30.

She was *begged* to veil herself, and to make her entry under the veil of darkness.

Lytton Strachey, *Books and Characters* p. 285.

Moreover he is *expected* to outlive you.

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 16 p. 164.

The fellow-victims at old Parlow's might have been *expected* to do these things, but they were too young, too uninterested, too unenterprising.

Walpole, *Fortitude* I ch. 4 p. 38.

Flora could not be *got* to take the matter very seriously.

Galsworthy, *Freelands* ch. 34.

The Geddes Committee was not *instructed*, and has not attempted, to shape a financial policy for the nation.

Observer, 12/2, 22.

On rare occasions an aunt from Longshaw was *permitted* as a tremendous favour to see her in the subterranean den ... It was undeniable, for instance, that she was *allowed* to fall in love exactly as she chose.

Bennett, Old W.T. I ch. § 2.

Do pray excuse me for asking, but do you find it does you good? My mother was *recommended* to try one.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 2 p. 11.

Visitors are *requested* to keep off the grass.

Owing to all which, the reference to Sally's father got lost sight of; and she wasn't sorry, because Theeny, at any rate, wasn't *wanted* to know anything about him, whatever Laetitia and her mother knew or suspected.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 15 p. 147.

c. The Countess was *announced* to be imminent.

Bennett, Card ch. I p. 18.

We urged it in the days when the shutters of the Board of Education were *announced* to be up.

Times Ed. S. 13/10, 16.

The entire length of our farm is *assumed* to be about thirty-two miles. Peard, Water-Farm (NED).

Once on a time all roads were *assumed* to lead to Rome, and once on a time they certainly did, so far as these islands of ours are concerned.

Times Lit. 19/5, 1921.

However this may be, a variety of supernatural persons are *believed* to affect the life of the natives.

Lowie, Pr. Rel. p. 60.

The individual worker is *believed* to have a right to control based on his ideal equality with all other individuals.

Times Lit. 14/4, 21.

It (viz. the theory) must be *conceded* to have a high degree of probability.

ib. p. 108.

This is a large concession; and, however necessary or justifiable, it can hardly be *denied* to be dangerous.

Times Lit. 7/8, 19.

... and has finally been *discovered* to be a book of promise... Walpole, *Fortitude* III ch. 2. p. 245.

It had a good garden to the back, and Mr. Clavering had built capital stables, with what were then considered the latest improvements. The point of good stabling was *expected* to let the house, as it was in a hunting county.

Gaskell (*Selected English Short Stories* I p. 207).

Few people will be *found* to deny that the English schoolboy has shown himself worthy of the country he is serving. Times Ed. S. 19/10, 16.

The soul is *held*, literally, to depart in dreams.

Laird p. 7.

It had waited thus, unmoved, during so many centuries, through the crises of so many things, that it could only be *imagined* to await one last crisis — the final overthrow.

Hardy, *Native* I ch. 1 p. 4.

He had rarely been *known*, in the past, to fulfil exactly the prophecy of the letter of advice concerning his arrival.

Bennett, *Old W.* Tale I ch. 6 § 2.

Cnut is *recorded* to have rebuilt the destroyed churches.

Medieval England ed. Davis p. 10.

291. The constructions illustrated in 290 are in some respects not identical. In the sentences under *c* the connection of the participle and the stem is closer than in those of *a* and *b*; indeed, it would be possible to consider the stem an adjunct to the participle. But the verbs of *a* and *b* are also used with a non-personal subject in which case the participle with the stem form the real predicate and are as closely connected as the verbs under *c*. This is shown by the following examples.

Parliament was *allowed* to separate without any warning of the true state of affairs. Times 21/8, 20.

Every pre-arranged assemblage comprising more than two persons beyond the family was a 'function' — a term implying both contempt and respect for ceremonial;

and no function could be *allowed* to occur without an excuse for it. Bennett, These Twain III ch. 20 § 6.

The words were *meant* to make him furious.

Nothing was *permitted* to arrest the gang's progress.
Pett Ridge, Mord Em'ly, p. 15.

The local inspection which was reserved by the Act to municipal authorities is gradually being *suffered* by these authorities themselves to become a dead letter.
Escott, England I, 110.

292. Even with a personal subject the connection between the participle and the stem may be equally close.

A little while ago we used to be *given* to understand that quite another kind of book was needed for such a subject.
Times Lit. 19/10, 22.

But Aidan was not *permitted* to see much direct fruit of his labours.
Wakeman, Introd. p. 27.

He was *granted* on that occasion to hold the city, as it were, imprisoned in a crystal globe.
Sinister Street p. 576.

293. The construction is generally considered the 'passive' parallel to the 'active' object-with-stem constructions. It may be useful to warn the reader that we are concerned only with the cases that the participle has a verbal meaning. The following sentence contains an example of an apparently parallel case; which does not concern us, however, because the participle is adjectival, clearly expressing a state.

Philip Bosinney was *known* to be a young man without fortune.
Galsworthy, Man of Property ch. 1.

294. The identification of the object-with-stem construction with the participle-with-stem one is not acceptable.

With regard to the verbs that take an object-with-plain-stem it must be noted that in the participle-with-stem construction the prefix *to* is almost invariably used. Ex-

ceptions such as the one from Meredith that follows are so rare and so little in accordance with spoken English that they may be neglected.

And then the postillion was bidden proceed, and he did not like it. *Meredith, Amazing Marriage ch. 2 p. 19.*

On the participle *let* with a plain stem, see *Auxiliaries*. It must also be observed that the connection with the object-with-stem construction is not strong enough to enable the verbs of wish to take the participle-with-stem.

A second point against the current view is that verbs which take the participle-with-stem construction are often used in a way that has no corresponding 'active' form in the same meaning (*a*), or no 'active' form at all (*b*).

a. That was a day of many little incidents, and a fine day into the bargain. Perhaps the next day was *helped* to be a flat day by the barometer, which had shown its usual untrustworthiness and gone down.

de Morgan, *Somehow Good ch. 39 p. 418.*

One critic has been *found* to say that he would have made a very good kind of Frenchman.

Times Lit. 19/10, 1922.

"What that Mahdi is about," Lord Granville is *made* to exclaim in another deleted paragraph, "I cannot make out..." *Lytton Strachey, Em. Vict. p. 293.*

b. Mr. Holmes's volume is *agreed* to be the best book on its subject in any language.

Class. Rev. vol. 25 p. 257.

Indeed it was not till after the battle of Telamon (225 B. C.) in the period between the two Punic wars, that the Gaulish danger may be *counted* to have wholly come to an end. *Oman, Conquest p. 12.*

Human civilization may be roughly *said* to be 100,000 years old. *Lowie, Pr. Rel. p. IX.*

Nobody could be *said* to understand the heath who had not been there at such a time.

Hardy, *Return of the Native I ch. 1.*

Every man was *supposed* to have free choice to go with the general or to stay. Trevelyan, Garibaldi.

The dead are *supposed* to dwell in the neighbourhood of the village. Times Lit. 25/5, 22.

295. A third consideration, and an important one, is the fact that the participle-with-stem is used in all forms of English, whereas the supposedly corresponding object-with-stem, as in the case of the *verba sentiendi et declarandi*, is unknown in colloquial English and of very limited use even in written English.

It must also be remembered that the participle construction, though generally used predicatively, occurs in attributive use; see 50 b.

296. For all these reasons it seems necessary to look upon the participle-with-stem as a special case of the adjectives with a stem as a final or complementary adjunct, as detailed at the beginning of this chapter.

That the connection between the participle and the stem is sometimes very close seems to be well shown by the following cases.

"Those things on the path have to go, don't they?"

"Yes, everything outside the house is *supposed to go*," said Linda Burnell¹⁾. K. Mansfield, Bliss p. 2.

My dear, what is to be done about her? We cannot have her *supposed to be* here for ever.

Barrie, Quality Street ed. Kooistra p. 90.

297. In all the uses of the stem with *to* in the preceding sections it has been possible to reduce the construction to that of an adjunct, whether of a final or complementary character. This must incline us to consider the same explanation

1) The reference is to the furniture of people moving into another house.

for the use of the stem as a grammatical subject or predicate, and living English makes it possible to do so.

298. When a sentence has a formal *it* for its grammatical subject and a predicate containing a stem with *to*, the latter may often be understood as the subject of the predicate. The construction will be found discussed more fully in the chapter on *Sentence-structure* so that some examples will suffice here.

It would be a futile meanness to deny that the philosophy, the theology, the criticism, and the science of the nineteenth century owe a vast debt to German work.

Times Lit. 11/5, 17.

It is to say much of the dinner that Adrian found no fault with it. Meredith, Feverel ch. 34 p. 300.

It's no use, I fear, to ask Tod.

Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 37 p. 78.

But they laughed at her; and she knew it was no good to scold, with all the men behind them.

Blackmore, Lorna Doone ch. 29 p. 186.

It remains only to notice with what kindred indignation the two writers complain of the little honour accorded to their craft.

299. From sentences of the type of 298 it is easy to pass to such as open with the stem as a grammatical subject. This construction, though frequent in written English, is less common in spoken English. In many cases the sentences are of an abstract kind, there being no definite subject.

To go on like this was dangerous.

Galsworthy, Man of Property ch. 3 p. 57.

To decry Dickens, even to protest that you could not read him, became a fashion. Bradley, Reaction p. 3.

To undertake such duties at such a time is an act of signal courage which deserves the fullest popular support.

Times W. 30/11, 17.

Where to begin is perhaps less obvious.

Trevelyan, British History in the 19th Century, Preface.

To invade Britain was singularly easy before the Norman Conquest, singularly difficult afterwards.

Trevelyan, Hist. of Engl. p. 1.

To disturb such a community was a serious matter, and one not to be undertaken without a clear necessity.

Cman, Conquest p. 62.

To see from the top of the Grey Hill the rising of the sun on Easter morning was one of them (viz. of the customs)...

Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 10 § 3 p. 117.

It seemed *to him* that not *to say* another word would almost have amounted to an insinuation against the eyebrows and the teeth.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 2 p. 10.

And these factors must have played their due part in determining territorial settlement. *To conclude* that they were sufficing motives, or even other than secondary ones, is inadmissible for several convincing reasons.

Massingham, Pre-Roman Britain p. 7.

For a familiar truth ceases to shock. To render it familiar is therefore a duty. It is also a pleasure.

Huxley, Vulgarity p. 22.

300. The use of the stem with *to* as a nominal predicate can be understood in the very same way as its use as a grammatical subject. It is sufficient to take a couple of sentences like the following, in which the stem, though a nominal predicate, is at the same time an adjunct to the noun that forms the subject.

My hope is, if possible, to do a little to encourage a wider reading of poetry by a wider public.

F. L. Lucas, Eight Victorian Poets, Preface.

The difficulty, with poetry, is to read it. There are so many easier things to read. ib.

301. From sentences like those of 300 it is easy to pass into the kind illustrated here.

The only possible course was to conceal the whole scheme from him. Freeman, Joseph ch. 5 p. 29.

The aim of all British biography is to conceal.

Wells, Harman ch. 11 § 1, p. 378.

But this is to anticipate. Life of Ainger p. 118.

My second purpose is to show teachers what can be done by furnishing examples of work already accomplished. Perse Playbooks, n°. 2. p. 1.

Of the close of the pic-nic more remains to be told.

Meredith, Harrington ch. 31 p. 340.

302. In abstract sentences we often find a verbal stem both as a subject and as a nominal predicate.

To be correct is already to be mechanical.

B. de Selincourt, Pomona (To-Day and To-Morrow) p. 49.

To live is to change, some one said, I forget who; and to live long is to have changed often.

Bailey, Question of Taste p. 3.

303. Not infrequently, however, the construction is found when there is a subject in the mind of the speaker, even though it is not mentioned.

To read him is to warm your hands before the fire of loyal admiration. Times Lit. 29/7, 15.

So with many another book on the thronged shelves. To take them down is to recall, how vividly, a struggle and a triumph. Gissing, Ryecroft XII.

To say that he failed because his genius was unsuited to tragedy is to tell us nothing at all.

Times Lit. 13/11, 19.

Aspect

304. After the individual treatment of each verbal form in the preceding sections, we must now turn to a comparison of those that have points of contact. Such a comparison will help to make the character of each form and the reasons for its range clearer.

It will be necessary in these comparisons to study the aspects of the verbal action or occurrence that the various forms express. The grammatical term *aspect* may be more or less unfamiliar to some readers; and, apart from that, the absence of forms in English that clearly express contrasting aspects has sometimes induced grammarians to introduce distinctions that are not justified by the facts of usage but have been suggested by theoretical views based on facts observed in other languages, if not a product of the imagination. For these reasons it will be advisable to treat of aspect in general before we enter upon a comparison of English verbal forms from this point of view.

305. Aspect is the translation of a term used in Slavonic grammar to denote the meaning of a verbal *form* in so far as it expresses whether the speaker looks upon an action in its entirety, or with special reference to some part (chiefly the beginning or end).

Many languages have no grammatical forms to express these differences of aspect. But this does not prevent speakers of these languages from being sometimes conscious of such differences. Consequently, languages that have no grammatical categories into which all verbal forms are arranged from the point of view of aspect, inevitably possess pairs of words or forms that serve, partly or exclusively, to express these or other differences of aspect.

306. In Slavonic grammar the forms of the languages

make it necessary to distinguish an *imperfective* (or *durative*) and a *perfective* aspect.

The difference between imperfective and perfective is soonest understood when the two aspects are contrasted. An imperfective aspect is generally expressed by *to sit*, a perfective by *to sit down*: *he sat in a corner of the room*; *he sat down in a corner of the room*.

It should be remembered that the English parallels are not identical with the Slavonic verbal forms. For it is evident that to an English speaker *to sit* and *to sit down* express what he looks upon as two actions, and what *are* in his view two distinct actions, not two aspects of the same action. And as a Slavonic verbal form *necessarily* expresses aspect, it is evident that the choice must sometimes be a matter of usage only. It would be vain to attempt a classification of verbs into the two groups of perfective and imperfective on purely logical grounds, without reference to formal characteristics. Many verbs may be said to be indifferent with respect to aspect, e.g. *to give, lend, explain, revenge, punish, greet, confess, justify*, etc.

307. As few readers are likely to be familiar with the real working of aspect in the structure of the various Slavonic languages it will be more instructive to mention some traces of such a distinction, though much less clear ones than in Slavonic, in such languages as most readers are acquainted with. It will be found that distinctions of aspect may find expression:

- (1) in the verbal forms themselves.
- (2) by means of verbs that are completely subordinated to a non-predicative verbal form, the two forming a close syntactic group.
- (3) in verbs that resemble those of the preceding group, but have an independent meaning of their own.

- (4) by independent pairs of verbs that are not formally related, so that the expression of aspect is purely lexical.
- (5) in the character of the adjuncts that accompany the verb.

308. French has¹⁾ a means of expressing the perfective or momentaneous aspect when the verb refers to the past: the *passé défini*. This is similar to, but not identical with, the Greek aorist; it should be observed that the Greek aorist does not necessarily express past time²⁾, the difference between the infinitive *βαλεῖν* of the aorist, which expresses 'to hit', and the present infinitive *βάλλειν* 'to throw', e.g., being independent of time.

309. The 'perfect' in Dutch is a verbal group consisting of a participle with the verb *hebben* or *zijn*. Although the use of the auxiliaries is partly a matter of tradition, the connection of the use with the difference of aspect of the verbal idea of the participle is still felt. And an intransitive verb of motion takes one of the two auxiliaries according to the aspect of the action in the mind of the speaker. It takes *hebben* when the action is thought of as such: *wij hebben een paar uur gewandeld* (we have walked, or been walking³⁾, for a couple of hours). It must take *zijn* when the change of position is prominent in the speaker's mind (*mutative aspect*): *We zijn weer naar huis gewandeld* (we have walked home again).

310. Dutch also has a regular grammatical means of expressing the durative aspect: the copula *zijn* (*to be*) with *aan* and the infinitive of a verb expressing action used as a noun

1) Or *had*, for it is really lost in spoken French.

2) Brugmann—Thumb, *Griechische Grammatik* §§ 554 ff.

3) Observe that the distinction of aspect between the English progressive and non-progressive is not made.

with the neuter article: *Hij is aan het verven*, which is perfectly equivalent to *He is painting*.

French uses a similar construction to ours: *Je suis à lire, je suis en train de lire*¹⁾. In German dialects, too, this construction is used, the prepositions being *an* and *bei*: *er ist am essen, es ist am regnen; er ist beim schreiben*²⁾.

Another construction is *er ist baden*, without a preposition; it is identical with the Dutch construction: *hij is baden, wandelen*, etc. It does not express the durative aspect, and may be compared with a parallel use of *wesen* in Dutch, expressing movement, but chiefly in the perfect: *Ik ben hem in Amsterdam wesen opzoeken* (I have been to visit him in Amsterdam).

311. The last case in the preceding section shows that it is impossible strictly to distinguish the verbal groups expressing aspect that are formed by means of a verb without any meaning from those groups which contain what may be called an *auxiliary of aspect*, i. e. a verb that is subordinate in meaning to the other verb with which it forms a group, but has yet some meaning of its own.

312. In Dutch, *liggen, staan, zitten*, all three verbs of position or motion, are used to express what may be called the durative aspect³⁾. The same observation applies to many other languages; compare Italian *sta tutto il giorno a lavorare* 'he is working all day'; *il ragazzo lo sta a mirare e niente dice* 'the boy is looking at him in astonishment and says nothing'. The phenomenon is very frequent in Spanish, too⁴⁾.

1) Meillet, *Linguistique historique et linguistique générale*, p. 187.

2) Deutschbein, in *Handbuch* p. 33.

3) Not of verbs expressing action only but also of such as express an occurrence; see my *Grammar of Modern Dutch* § 163.

4) A full and instructive treatment is to be found in F. Krüger's *Einführung in das Neuspanische* pp. 32 ff., 43, and 164.

313. In English, the verb *to come* frequently occurs as a member of a syntactic group, expressing the *result* of a *gradual* process.

The reproach of being a nation of mere imitators has been so frequently directed against the Japanese that it has come to be regarded as a truth specially applicable in their case.

The undisturbed stability of the motor-car market here can be explained only in one way, and that is that the motor-car is more and more coming to be realized as a commercial necessity. Times W. 14/12, 17.

"This is a strange note," said Mr. Utterson; and then sharply, "How do you come to have it open?"

Stevenson, Dr. Jekyll ed. Schutt p. 73.

Perhaps you come to know a person better when she is fog-bound in your flat.

Cotes, Cinderella ch. 14 p. 157.

Approached in this light, even the 'salle du palais de Pyrrhus' begins to have a meaning. We come to realise that, if it is nothing else, it is at least the meeting-ground of great passions....

Lytton Strachey, Books and Characters p. 10.

As soon as I let myself begin to tell about the people we came to know and the things that happened to us,

Cotes, Cinderella ch. 8 p. 85.

Nor was it only with the action of these persons that she was familiar. She sounded their hearts, and came to know instinctively what each one of them was capable or incapable of doing.

S. R. Gardiner in Introd. to Verney Memoirs I.

Nor can this theory make clear to us how men, dominated by their sheep and their oxen, fearful of venturing into the wilderness of trees below them, came to leave such numerous and laborious monuments....

Massingham, Pre-Roman Britain p. 7.

After four years of married life, when both Anne and Dickey had been born to her, she came to realise

that without imagination, without a sense of humour, no man can make Romance.

Temple Thurston, *Antagonists* I ch. 4 p. 39.

Style, the Latin name for an iron pen, has come to designate the art that handles, with ever fresh vitality and wary alacrity, the fluid elements of speech.

Raleigh, *Style* p. 1.

"I used to detest port," she told Sir Thomas Tanner, "but having to drink it so constantly of late years when Lord Lippington proposed the Royal toast, I have almost come to like it." Cotes, *Cinderella* ch. 8 p. 54.

The land had become an island, the greater part of the terrible beasts of old had disappeared, and conditions of climate and geography had apparently come to be not very different from what they are at present, when neolithic man begins to be discernible.

Oman, *Conquest* p. 3.

314. *To fall* is sometimes used with a verbal ing to express the inchoative aspect.

One night during this last illness that had brought him home he fell thinking of Zimbabwe and the lost cities of Africa. Wells, Joan and Peter ch. 9 § 3.

315. Similarly, *to keep* is used with a verbal ing to express that the natural, or expected, cessation of an action or occurrence does not take place.

He kept changing his plans.

Tout, *History of England*.

"I always *do* have the thought," she will very likely say, as she has said it to us, "that the picture can as good as hear us speak, for all the world as if it was a Christian, and not an inanimate object. Because its eyes keep looking — looking."

de Morgan, *A Likely Story* ch. 11 p. 332.

316. We might also look upon *to continue*, *to begin*, *to cease*, *to stop*, *to finish*, *to get*, as auxiliaries of aspect.

No one is more loud or insistent than he who has just ceased to be labelled new.

Waugh, Loom of Youth p. 26.

We never stop changing, yet we never change altogether.
Times Lit. 25/5, 22.

But the historians will stop talking of Chaucer as a solitary lighthouse in a dark sea, and tiresomely recounting the names of Lydgate and Hoccleve as those of two dullards who happen to be remembered because there is nothing better to remember.

J. C. Squire in Observer Oct. 30, 1921.

As I finished speaking to Bony, he looked over to the grief-worn figure....

de Morgan, Vance, ch. 41 p. 416.

We get to know (from the book reviewed) such things — profoundly useless, profoundly charming to the dweller in cities — as that beech and ash are the best logs for the winter's fire. Daily News 13/10, 1911.

Similarly *to be apt* might be said to express the frequentative aspect.

Separation is apt to idealise the removed object.

Hardy, Far from the Madding Crowd, ch. 5.

317. Sometimes a verb, though formally quite independent as a member of a loose syntactic group, has really no more independent meaning than the preceding verbs in close syntactic groups. In this way *to come*, and the preterite *went*, are sometimes used to indicate an action that is thought of as beginning from a certain point and continuing after that.

When she had vanished the artist *went and stood* with his back to the stove, for it was too dark to work.

de Morgan, A Likely Story ch. 1 p. 5.

318. Two verbs that are formally independent of each other may express two aspects of the same verbal idea. This applies to such a pair as *to read* and *to peruse*. The

aspect expressed by *to peruse a book* might perhaps be called *terminative*, because the verb expresses the action as occupying an amount of time but with special reference to its end. Such a distinction would only be useful, however, if there were pairs of verbs showing the same difference; it would be necessary if there were grammatical forms expressing it. But neither of these cases is found in English.

319. The aspect of a verb, though not shown in any way by the verb itself, may appear in the form of its adjuncts. Thus we find that in Dutch, which generally expresses direction by means of the preposition *naar* (*naar Frankrijk reizen*: to travel to France), perfective verbs of motion (both transitive and intransitive) can express direction by words that are generally used to express position.

This distinction of aspect must explain the difference between the imperfective *naar huis gaan* 'to go home', and the perfective *thuis komen* 'to come home'; *naar boven gaan* 'to go upstairs' and *boven komen* 'to come upstairs'.

By the side of *thuis komen* 'to come home', we can also use *naar huis komen*, as also *naar boven komen*, but only when we specially think of the movement necessary to reach the final stage. The same difference is made between *thuis brengen* and *naar huis brengen* 'to take home'.¹⁾

We find the same distinction in the use of the pronominal adverbs of place *hier*, *daar*, and *hierheen*, *daarheen*. We can say, therefore: *kom hier* or *kom hierheen* 'come here', *breng het hier* or *breng het hierheen* 'bring it here'; but we can only say *ga daar eens heen* 'just go there', *stuur het hierheen* 'send it here'. Compare also *hij komt in Den Haag*, or *naar den Haag* 'he is coming to the Hague', but only *hij gaat naar Den Haag* 'he is going to the Hague'.

1) Van der Meer, Neuniederl. Gr. § 157.

The reality of the distinction is also shown negatively, by the fact that the imperfective verbs cannot take both kinds of adjuncts. It would be meaningless to say *thuis gaan*, *boven gaan*, *hier gaan*, etc.

It should be noted that the distinction here shown to exist between verbs of motion is not to be identified with the classification of verbs as mutative and non-mutative (309): both *gaan* and *komen* are mutative (taking *zijn* in the perfect), and yet they differ in their adjuncts expressing direction.

320. In German a parallel distinction is made by using prepositional adjuncts in the dative or in the accusative case: see E. A. Meyer, *Ruhe und Richtung*, 1928. This distinction was also made in Gothic, as was first shown by Streitberg, who thus accounted for the twofold construction with verbs like *qiman*, *galagjan*, *gadriusan*¹⁾.

321. In languages that do not possess regular forms to express differences of aspect the same verb is used to denote clearly different aspects of the same verbal idea without any formal distinction. We say then that the verb expresses various 'shades of meaning' according to the situation.

1. The Signor *saw* in a fog as a cat sees in the dark, and he led Peter to the bookshop without hesitation.

Walpole, *Fortitude* II ch. 2. p. 162.

I *see* what you mean.

2. We call a man *deaf* when he cannot *hear*.

I did not *hear* what you said.

3. I have *thought* of your proposal, but I don't *think* it is a practicable plan.

4. He *knows* English very well.

I wonder how he should have *known* us for Americans.

NED.

1) *Festschrift für Windisch*, 1915.

Then, curiously, as he met her more often and *knew* her better there came a certain easy, almost casual intercourse. Walpole, *Fortitude* III ch. 3 p. 257.

As he came towards her he *knew* at once that she was the little girl who had talked to him on a hill-top one Good Friday afternoon. She did not *know* him at all when he came forward.

Walpole, *Fortitude* II ch. 2 p. 167.

5. Go and *learn* your lessons now.

All that he knew about their treachery he had *learned* at second hand. Macaulay. NED.

6. Stephen was *sitting* on one of the beds, looking in front of him. Peter moved forward heavily and *sat* on the other bed.

Walpole, *Fortitude* II ch. 8. p. 226.

7. . . . he moved to the corner where his clothes *lay*.
ib. I ch. 1 p. 23 f.

The man dropped without a word and *lay* motionless.
id. ib.

Character 322. Some verbs are evidently connected, both in form and meaning, though they express distinct ideas. Such pairs of verbs are *to crack* — *to crackle*, *to climb* — *to clamber*, *to prate* — *to prattle*. We may also group others that show greater differences in form but are similarly related in meaning: *to fly* — *to flutter*, or even verbs that have the same suffix *-le* or *-er* without a parallel simple verb: *to sparkle*, *to slumber*.

All these verbs with the suffixes *-le* and *-er* express an action that is thought of as the result or sum of repetitions of a single action: we have really two different actions, although they are related to each other. These groups of verbs show a difference in the *character* of the actions expressed. The distinction does not depend upon the mental attitude of the individual observer, but upon a difference between the actions that can be thought of as independent

of the observer; in popular terms: the difference of *character* is *objective*, whereas the difference of *aspect* is *subjective*.

323. The character expressed by *crackle*, *clamber*, etc., in which an action is represented as consisting of a series of repeated actions, is also expressed by means of repetition, often with vowel-change: *tip-tappings*, *pitter-patter*, etc.; see vol. 3 on *Occasional Methods of Word-formation*.

324. Repetition of the same action does not necessarily lead to the summing up expressed by the verbs or nouns in 322 f.: the actions may remain independent and isolated. This character, which it may be convenient to distinguish by a special name: the *iterative*, is often indicated by an adverb adjunct, or it can be inferred from the situation.

After dinner sit a while, after supper walk a mile.

School begins at 8.30 A.M. except on Wednesdays and Saturdays.

He goes to Germany once a year.

He always declared that it was impossible for him to interfere.

When I have asked a singer, as I have constantly had to do, whether he sang a particular song, I have often received the reply, etc. Sharp, Folksong p. 17.

325. The distinction of an iterative character enables us to state the difference between *to have* and *to have got*. It makes no difference to the meaning expressed whether we say *He has a lot of money* or *He has got a lot of money*. And yet, instead of *Every year he has a month's holiday* it would be impossible to say: *he has got*. The reason is that the perfect of *get* is not iterative.

Repetition may produce a custom or habit, and this variety of character may be expressed by special verbs which, being subordinated in meaning to the accompanying verbal stem

or verbal ing, are classed as auxiliaries. See the final sections of this volume.

326. Sometimes a verb is used to express the beginning of the action, the *inchoative* character. Such verbal expressions are *to catch sight of*, *to take possession of*, *to take one's stand*. Very often, however, it is the context only that shows us that this character is meant, as in the following sentences with *to know* and *to stand*.

When I first knew him, during my engagement to my husband, he had just practically — though not formally — given up his orders.

Mrs. H. Ward, Harper's, May 1918.

Five minutes went by, and then a man in uniform, like a 'bus conductor, came out of nowhere, and stood in front of him. Temple Thurston, Thirteen I p. 29.

The term *inchoative* is often applied to verbs with the suffix [n], as *redden*, *sicken*. But it should be noted that these verbs do not so much express the beginning of an action, but rather the passing from one state into another. There is no need for a special term, because it is not a character with special grammatical forms, apart from this suffix.

327. It has been pointed out that the difference between aspect and character is the difference between individual views and objective fact¹⁾. This may seem as rigid a barrier between the two ideas as could be wished. But it is not so: the distinction is no more absolute than the one between subjective and objective. When we say that the difference between Greek *βαλεῖν* and *βάλλειν* is one of aspect, we probably give a correct interpretation of the forms: to a Greek speaker the two forms expressed two aspects of what was essentially one action. But when we

1) Admirably shown by H. Jacobsohn, in *Gnomon* II, 379, ff.

render the meanings of the two form by *to hit* and *to throw*, we use two verbs that to an English speaker are, indeed, connected, but still distinct. The two English verbs are of different characters. This difficulty is insuperable: our ideas of the world outside us are not independent of the words that are used to classify and name them. In other words: each linguistic group has its own system of classifying the ideas that observation produces. Language thus decides, not only the forms in which we express our ideas, but the nature of the ideas themselves.

It is natural, therefore, that character and aspect cannot always be distinguished. When we explained the perfective aspect of the Slavonic verb by means of the English compound *sit down* (306) we really substituted a verb of a different character from the simple verb *to sit*, not of a different aspect. For to an English speaker *to sit* and *to sit down* are not two aspects of the same action, but two distinct actions.

328. Composition is a frequent means in English of expressing a variety of character in verbs of motion when the prefix expresses a passage from one position into another: *to sit down*, *to sit up (in bed)*, *to sink down*, *to burn down*, *to lie down*, *to stand up*, *to pull up*, *to drive away*. These groups are separable compounds.

Composition with a prefix expressing place is also frequent in Dutch; compare the simple verb and its compound in the following cases: *uitlezen*, *opeten*, *inslikken*, *uitspuwen*, *inschrijven*, etc.

A translation of the Dutch words will show that English sometimes uses different words, in other cases uses one verb for both meanings.

Thus *opeten* would often be rendered by *to finish*, *eten* by *to eat*; *inschrijven* by *to enter*, *schrijven* by *to write*; *uitlezen* by *to finish*, *lezen* by *to read*. On the other hand both

slikken and *inslikken* are to swallow: *It hurts me to swallow (slikken)* and *Baby will swallow the ball if you don't take it away (inslikken)*.

329. An adverb used in composition with verbs may often lose its original meaning in these compounds. Dutch *kleden* and *aankleden* must both be rendered by *dress* in English: *zij kleedt de kinderen eenvoudig* ‘She dresses the children plainly’; *ik zal de kinderen wel aankleden, juffrouw* ‘I’ll dress the children, Nurse.’ Similarly in these English sentences:

They seem to have *eked out* a rather poor existence
on the shores. Fleure, Races of Mankind p. 17.

That he *fought through* all his troubles, and received
the homage of the whole nation as a saint,....

Oman, Conquest p. 537.

Compare also *to follow out*, *to follow up*, *to fill up*, *to hurry up*, etc. Compare also the definition of the verbs *to post* and *to post up* as terms in book-keeping given by the NED.: ‘to complete (the ledger or other book) by transferring to it all the items in the auxiliary books, and entering them in their proper accounts; to make the proper entries in all the books, so that they contain a complete record of all the transactions; often *post up* (i. e. up to date, or *to completion*).’

330. It may happen that the prefix loses its independent meaning altogether, so that, instead of adding a new element that modifies the character of the action, it only expresses another aspect of the same action. Thus Dutch *ver-* in *ver-horen* ‘to grant a request’ is a means of expressing the perfective aspect of what is *horen* in its imperfective aspect. When we say: *de koning verhoorde zijn verzoek* ‘the king granted his request’, we may really think of the king listening to the request and granting it after that. The English trans-

lation cannot render this, which shows once more that aspect is not an inherent part of the action itself, but an element in the manner of viewing it by a speaker of a certain language.

331. Composition by means of an adverb or prefix to express aspect is found in several Indogermanic languages. Students of Old Germanic may be reminded of the Gothic prefix *ga-* (Dutch *ge-*)¹⁾. In Modern French the prefix *re* (or *r*, before vowels) is often used, especially in colloquial French, to express the perfective aspect²⁾. Thus *rabattre*, *rabaisser*, *raitraper*, *réunir* chiefly differ from the simple verbs *abattre*, *abaïsser*, *attraper*, *unir* by the aspect they express. The original meaning of *re-* 'again' is often completely lost, so that *rentres donc* may be said although the person addressed has never entered the house.

The prefix *dé-* is similarly used in French *démontrer*, *dépeindre*, *délaisser*, *détenir*.

332. Sometimes two completely different verbs may be looked upon as a pair, one expressing what corresponds to the imperfective, the other the perfective aspect.

Imperfective	Perfective
to live	to settle
to strike	to hit
to say	to tell
to hold ³⁾	to seize
to acquire	to obtain

Another pair is *to ascend* (imperf.) and *to mount* (perfective). This difference is clear when we compare *to ascend a hill*, and *to mount a hill*. Hence also, though we can say *to mount a horse*, it would be absurd to say *to ascend a horse*.

1) Streitberg, Paul und Braune's Beiträge 15 p.p. 70—177.

2) Vendryés, Le Langage, p. 130 f.

3) But *to hold up*, *to hold in* (*the reins*), are perfective, according to 328.

333. When a verb expresses an action with special attention concentrated on its final stage, it is used with reference to past time or future time rather than present time. Thus we do not say *I mount my horse* to express something concerning the present time. We see from this that the aspect expressed by a verb, though aspect is independent of time, may influence the verbal tense in which the verb occurs.

Similarly the Dutch verb *gaan* 'to go', as well as *aller* in French, though expressing an action as starting from a certain point of time, and serving primarily as an auxiliary of aspect, has come to be used as an auxiliary of the future tense¹⁾. We see, therefore, that aspect and tense, like aspect and character, cannot always be kept distinct.

334. In the preceding sections it has seemed useful to describe the traces of an expression of the aspect and character of a verbal idea in some of the better known languages. It has been shown that neither aspect nor character is a regular grammatical category in most of the languages referred to: there are generally no pairs of verbal forms differing only in the aspect or character they express. A pair like the Greek imperfect and aorist, and the French imparfait and *passé défini* is not found in most of the modern languages referred to. The traces of a distinction of aspect, though real enough in some cases, are of little importance for the general structure of the language. And in many cases the distinction is not of a grammatical but of a lexical character. Now it is true, and indeed clearly shown by the treatment of aspect and character in these pages, that the division of linguistic facts into matters for the dictionary and for grammar is not essential. It has

1) See Haas, *Franz. Syntax* § 123; Krüger, *Einl. in das Neuspanische* p. 127.

also been shown that ideas that in one language are expressed by grammatical forms can only be expressed by lexical means in another. But the division of labour between dictionary and grammar is a practical necessity, and we can say that, speaking grammatically, there is only one form in living English that really serves the purpose of expressing aspect, and even that only in some of its uses: the verbal form in *ing*.

335. It is important to consider that the verbal *ing* is a non-predicative form. For it is its non-verbal function, whether it is substantival or adjectival, that is at the bottom of its capacity for expressing aspect. Hence we may expect to find this aspect most clearly when the *ing* is used in functions resembling those of a noun or of an adjective.

The verbal *ing* is most clearly a form expressing what may be defined as the *durative* aspect when it forms a group with the verb *to be*¹⁾. In this case the group is called the *progressive*; its use will be discussed in the sections on the auxiliary *to be*.

In the following chapter the meanings of the single verbal *ing* will be treated. Its true nature with regard to aspect can be fully understood only when we compare it with its alternatives: the verbal stem, and the simple predicative verb.

VERBALS AND CLAUSES

336. By verbs we shall mean the plain stem of the verb, the stem with *to*, and the form in *ing*.

1) The term *durative* does not imply that the English verbal *ing* expresses the same aspect in all its details as the Slavonic durative (or imperfective) verb. They may be related without being identical. It should also be noted that the Slavonic languages themselves differ in details.

We shall compare:

- (1) Plain stem and stem with *to*.
- (2) Plain stem and ing.
- (3) Stem with *to* and ing.
- (4) Verbals and verbal derivatives.
- (5) Verbals and clauses.

Plain Stem and Stem with to

337. The plain stem is largely used as the leading element of the predicate; in these functions it is called the present, the imperative, and the exclamative. It has a point of contact with the stem with *to* in the last of these functions only.

338. When we compare the exclamative plain stem as illustrated in 183 f. with the similar stem with *to* in 204 f., it is evident that they do not express the same meaning: one construction cannot be substituted for the other. We may rule out the sentence of 183 *a*, for it is so closely connected with the sentence that follows it that the whole group should rather be looked upon as a case of the type discussed in 178 ff., as has been suggested in 183. It is clear that all the sentences of 183 express the rejection of an idea.

The sentences of 204 f., on the other hand, even if they express rejection or repudiation, as in the first quotation of 204, do not refer to an idea, but to a wish, plan, or suggestion. This is clearly the effect of the preposition *to* expressing purpose, etc., and consequently referring to a future time.

339. The chief point of contact between the two forms of the stem in their decidedly non-predicative use is in

the object-with-stem construction with the verbs of sensation or perception and of experience, less often with the verbs of causing.

With regard to the first group, the verbs of sensation and perception, it has already been shown that the two forms of the stem have their range clearly defined: the object-with-plain stem is used to express the perception of a fact or occurrence, the object-with-stem with *to* is found, though chiefly in written English, to express the perception of a state. It is true that the latter construction is occasionally found when an occurrence is perceived (286), but it should be remembered that an exclusively literary construction is never handled with the certainty that colloquial use brings with it. And no native speaker would be capable of using *to feel, hear, or see* with an object-with-stem with *to* if an action was to be referred to: *I saw him to run away* is unimaginable. It may be useful to point out that the difference between the two constructions is not only in the meaning expressed by the stem (action and occurrence, or state) but also in the leading verbs themselves: *to see, feel, and hear* express a sensation or involuntary perception, *to watch, observe, etc.* chiefly express a voluntary action. It is not to be wondered at that the familiar object-with-plain stem construction is occasionally used with *watch, observe* etc., as shown in 198: the distinction of meaning is too delicate to be always effective in its influence upon the construction chosen. And the opposite is also possible: when *to see or feel* are used with an object-with-stem with *to* they mostly express a mental (voluntary) rather than a physical perception, as in the quotations of 285 *a* (except the first) and in the following.

A traveller who should walk and observe any of these visitants as Venn observed them now could feel himself

to be in direct communication with regions unknown to man.
Hardy, Native I ch. 10 p. 104 f.

340. The distinction between stems expressing an action or occurrence and such as express a state or condition will also enable us to understand why in the following sentences *to make* must take the stem with *to*.

The history of the Turkish Empire for more than a hundred years, its extraordinary combination of races, and, above all, its wonderful geographical position astride the Eastern Mediterranean, have always made its condition and its relations to be of prime importance to the European powers.

F. Harrison in English Rev. Jan. 1913.

So also history is full of anomalies and single events giving colouring to periods and making things to be what they are. Stubbs, Lect. Early Eng. Hist. p. 1.

341. And if *to have* takes the same construction in the following quotations, it is not a matter of indifference that in both cases it is dependent upon a verb expressing will. See also the chapter on *Auxiliaries*.

It is enough for me... to cut at the roots of ignorance... not to pull off the leaves one by one as you would have me to do. M. Cholmondeley, Red Pottage.

And he would have had her to suppose that....

Meredith, Beauchamp ch. 2 p. 18.

342. Of the verbs of causing that take the traditional object-with-plain stem (*let*, *help*, *make*, *bid*) the last two are also found with the object-with-stem with *to*. The first two sentences below probably take *to* as a result of the unusual word-order; the other cases may be influenced by rhythmical or other 'literary' considerations. This is still more natural for the purely literary verb *to bid*.

It is a book full of matter making one furiously to think.
Rev. of Rev. Jan. 1910.

The British were the dominant colonizing race destined by fate to make to blossom the waste places of the earth. Times W. 19/12, 1902.

A mere device for making the deaf to hear.

Sketch 6/8, 13.

... making the cabman above bound and sway, and the cab-horse to start and antic.

Meredith, Rhoda Fleming ch. 19.

After an exciting subject which has made the general tongue to wag, and just enough heated the brain to cause it to cry out for spiced food—then start your story.

Meredith, Harrington ch. 31.

She would have given the world that he should ask her questions; but she could not bid him to do so.

Trollope, Dr. Thorne ch. 33 p. 355.

In another place he characteristically bids his angry colleagues to join with him ... Bailey, Johnson.

Two days later came letters from the administration, accepting his voluntary services, and bidding him to repair at once to headquarters.

Buchanan, That Winter Night ch. 2.

They are averse from all wars, and above all from wars which would entangle them now and for the future in those "European entanglements" their traditional policy bids them to avoid. Times 24/7, 15.

"He is acting, Carry." — "No," said Caroline, "he is not. I have never known Evan to lie."

Meredith, Harrington ch. 37 p. 183.

"My dear brother, you did not do what you said you would do." "Have you ever known me not to do what I said I would do?" ib. ch. 36 p. 381.

I have known him to get up at three o'clock in the morning. Times W. 21/12, 17.

"Poor St. Joseph," they say — "I always get what I want from him. I've never known him to fail."

Temple Thurston, City p. 4.

343. Of the other two verbs of causing: *to let* and *to help*, the former is as good as always construed with the KRUISINGA, Handbook II. *Accidence and Syntax*. 1. 16

object-with-plain stem; *to help*, on the contrary, though it is sometimes used with the same construction, usually takes the other.

Nothing was ever done to help him to understand the processes of his own mind.

Cannan, Corner, ch. 20 p. 216.

344. It is naturally possible for two plain stems *Grouping of Stems* to be coordinated by *and*, *or*; and to be joined by *as*, *than*, *but*, *except*¹⁾.

There is a world of difference between speaking to a voluntary audience whom you must *interest* or, as a lecturer, *perish*, and speaking to an academic audience over whom you can crack the whip of an attendance register.

Times Ed. S. 18/3, 20.

And ultimately, to the commonest tourist, spots like Iceland may *become* what the vineyards and myrtle-gardens of South Europe are to him now; and Heidelberg and Baden *be* passed unheeded as he hastens from the Alps to the sand-dunes of Scheveningen.

Hardy, Native I ch. 1 p. 5.

"Oh! there's no harm in starting at the top. They can't *do* more than *refuse* it. But I don't think they will . . ." Walpole, Fortitude II ch. 5 p. 196.

Why, in spite of all, should I go back . . . simply to save hundreds of millions of common people, whom I did not love, whom too often I could not *do* other than *despise*, from the stress and anguish of war and infinite misrule. Wells, Country of the Blind, 14/9, 12.

What could they *do* but *avoid* her!

Galsworthy, Man of Property ch. 1.

345. When two plain stems are connected by *and* it sometimes happens that the second is clearly subordinated, forming an adjunct of attendant circumstances.

1) On the character of these conjunctive words, see *Sentence-Structure*.

A woman with an ice-cold brain who could pass through a Stock Exchange cataclysm and show no emotion^{1).} Graphic 29/6, 1929.

He could *sit up* reading a whole night and not feel sleepy.

346. The connecting *and* may introduce what should be called a free adjunct, separated from the rest of the sentence by a clear break.

He could throw it (viz. the knife) from the top of a bus and no one notice. M. Arlen, May Fair p. 132.

For instance, can a man disappear like that, even in Constantinople, and no questions be asked?

Strand, Jan. 1917.

There isn't, I suppose, anything in the world more irritating than to be angry with a woman and she not notice. M. Arlen, Green Hat p. 247.

347. When two stems with *to* are coordinated, it is naturally possible to use *to* twice. This construction leaves the two stems independent of each other.

She was anxious to make her friend smile, and to smile with her. Trollope, Dr. Thorne ch. 26 p. 277.

We have indicated its general character; we cannot pretend to do more than to draw attention to a few points in it. Times W. 4/12, 14.

He sought to raise the civilization of his own country by the employment of Englishmen in Denmark, rather than to gratify the pride of his countrymen by placing Danes in command in England.

Wakeman, Introd. p. 72.

1) This quotation, like several others here, is borrowed from an article in *Moderna Språk* (Dec. 1929) by Dr. Arvid Smith.

348. It is also possible when two stems are connected by *and* to use the prefix once, so that it may be supposed to precede the group. The two stems may remain independent of each other (*a*), but when there is no break the effect of single *to* is frequently to subordinate one stem to the other; in this case repetition would be impossible. In many groups the second stem is the subordinate element of the group (*b*); this case cannot always be distinguished from that of 345, as is clearly shown in the second quotation. Occasionally it is the first stem that is subordinated (*c*).

a. Another simplification is to follow the stream and ignore the eddies in the river of human history.

Times Lit. 11/3, 20.

It is incontestably much easier to read French than read Greek.

Times Ed. S. 7/9, 16.

He is considerably sparing you the trouble of having to take a bath, fumigate yourself, and change your under-clothing.

Huxley, Vulgarity p. 4.

b. He used to loiter behind on their walks and pretend that he did not belong to Nurse. Sinister Street p. 80.

We all go to and fro in a state of the observing faculties which somewhat resembles coma. We are content to look and not see.

Arnold Bennett, English Rev. April 1913.

For the third time that evening he had to fight against a disposition to blow his nose and be absurd.

Walpole, Fortitude II ch. 5 p. 199.

c. Will you ask her to come and see me?

Gissing, Odd Women ch. 3.

What is this life if, full of care,

We have no time to stand and stare...

Davies, in Poems of To-Day I 101.

349. We also find a stem without *to* after *but*, *than*, *except*, no matter whether another stem precedes (*a*) or not (*b*). Sometimes the stem takes *to* (*c*).

a. Here it is impossible to do more than briefly indicate a few of the prominent names.

Millar, Mid-eighteenth Cent.

You mustn't think I've got nothing to do but enjoy myself. Bennett, Old W. Tale IV ch. 3 § 4.

Meanwhile Amos' gaze was soon bent on the floor as usual; then it began to roam about the room, anywhere except meet his brother's.

Patterson, Stephen Compton, p. 29.

It (i. e. a well-proportioned mind) never would have allowed Yeobright to do such a ridiculous thing as throw up his business to benefit his fellow-creatures.

Hardy, Native III ch. 2 p. 213.

b. Adam should have been wiser than do that, she told him.

Peter does nothing but pick holes in Americans.

Cotes, Cinderella ch. 14 p. 167.

c. We cannot do better toward showing the value of this volume than to quote this passage concerning Shakespeare.

We now know better than to make any such concession. Times W. 1/11, 12.

350. When of two coordinated verbs with the same stem as an adjunct after them the one requires a stem without *to*, the other a stem with *to*, the stem must be repeated.

(The two functions) can be, and ought to be, distinguished in analysis. Times Lit. 10/8, 16.

351. The plain stem when used predicatively, apart from its imperative and exclamative use, is counted a present tense. We have seen that in reality the time of the verbal idea depends upon the situation, and may be present, future or past.

When the plain stem is used as a non-predicative form it does not in any way indicate time; the time in which the action, occurrence or state is thought of depends entirely upon the rest of the sentence, as far as it is grammatically expressed: *I do not agree with you, I did not agree with you, I shall never agree with you.*

352. The same applies to the stem with *to*: *I am pleased to see you, I was pleased to see you, I shall be pleased to see you.* But when the stem clearly expresses purpose, result, or destiny, it must naturally refer to what is future, as in the following cases.

It did not signify what those times had been, they were gone never to return.

Gaskell, North and South ch. 2.

He ate his breakfast heartily, and smoked his pipe, making no more of death than if he had been to take a journey.

Times Lit. 1/11, 18.

A month ago the Prime Minister insisted upon the exceptional importance of the coming Conference of the Allies to be held in Paris.

Times W. 30/11, 17.

With the exception of an aged highway, and a still more aged barrow presently to be referred to....

Hardy, Return of the Native I ch. 1.

353. The consequence of this future meaning of the stem is that *to be* is sometimes equivalent to a predicative adjective, meaning *future*.

The English Plato is still to be.

Times Lit. 15/1, 20.

354. When the stem with *to* is not used in the final sense, however, as in adjuncts to nouns, and as an independent element of the sentence (subject or nominal predicate) it may refer to other than future time (*a*), or, indeed, to no particular time at all (*b*). Of course, future time may also be referred to (*c*).

a. Nicholas Breakspear, Pope (d. 1159), the only Englishman to attain that eminence was born at Langley, near St. Albans.

Dict. Eng. Church Hist. ed. Ollard s. v. Adrian IV.

The first apparently to point out Milton's indebtedness to Dante were the two Richardsons.

b. To read George Eliot attentively is to become aware how little one knows about her. Times Lit. 20/11, 19.

c. A man would often cut his hands with the shells, which would poison and swell, and render him helpless for some time to come.

Davies, Super-Tramp ch. 11 p. 87.

Summary 355. After the detailed comparison of the two forms of the stem in the preceding sections it seems desirable to sum up, in as few words as possible, what we may consider the outcome of this comparison.

The plain stem differs from the stem with *to* in the first place in that it can be used in a predicative as well as in a non-predicative function. The plain stem in itself never suggests any idea of the time, nor, as we shall see more clearly below, of the aspect, of the verbal idea it expresses. The stem with *to* shows the traces of its starting-point (in the final adjunct) in many uses even when no purpose or result is expressed. Its aspect may not be perfective, it is certainly never durative; this is the reason why it is impossible to use it in the object-with-stem construction with verbs expressing a sensation of some thing happening (with *to feel, hear, see*).

The reason, finally, why the 'auxiliaries' take the plain stem, and why *ought* takes the stem with *to*, can now also be stated. The plain stem is neither exclusively predicative, nor exclusively non-predicative. The auxiliaries, being verbs that are completely subordinate members of the verbal group they form with the stem, are not clearly predicative for that very reason, and take the

plain stem which may be either. It may be added that if the stem with *to* is out of the question here, the same applies to the verbal ing. And if *ought* takes the stem with *to* this is in agreement with the plain fact that *ought* is not subordinated to the stem, whether in form or meaning, as the related *must* frequently is; see 417 ff.

Plain Stem and Ing

356. The only point of contact between the plain stem and the ing is in the object-with-plain stem and the object-with-ing constructions with verbs expressing a sensation (*feel, hear, see*) or experience (*have, find*). The aspect of the ing in contrast to the plain stem is shown to be the cause of the use of the two forms in the following quotations. The same verb is shown to take either construction according to the principle indicated.

1. We *heard* the dog *barking* loudly, and ran to the place as quick as we could... The next moment we again *heard* the dog *bark*, and when we came up to him, we found, etc. Sweet, Spoken English p. 55.

He had seen her twice; he had rather liked a short speech of five sentences she made at a Flower Show, and he had *heard* her *being* extremely rude to a curate. Wells, Joan and Peter ch. 5 § 1.

2. Long before he reached Piccadilly, he *saw* the very person *approaching* him. He was walking a little more leisurely than most of those whom he had seen. His top-hat glistened in the sunlight and a cane with a gold band swang loosely on his arm.

As he came nearer, Johnny *saw* him *take* a gold cigarette-case from his pocket, and he stopped to light a cigarette. Temple Thurston, Thirteen I p. 23.

Edwin in the darkness could *see* him *feeling* in his waistcoat pocket and then *raise* his arm, and *throw* in the direction of the dimly lighted yard.

Bennett, These Twain I ch. 5.

Accordingly, when watching on the night after the festival (Venn) *saw* him *ascend* by the little path, *lean* over the front gate of Clym's garden, *sigh*, and *turn* to go back again.

Hardy, Return of the Native IV ch. 4.

That is the conviction which we should like to *see* *spreading* in all classes, and especially in the working classes.

Star 6 Sept. 1927.

But some thoughtful persons, who had *seen* him *walking* across one of his fields on a certain December morning — sunny and exceedingly mild — might have regarded Gabriel in other aspects than these.

Hardy, Madding Crowd ch. 1 p. 3.

3. After lunch they walked to the Parks to *watch* Alan *playing* for the Varsity. Sinister Street p. 704.

Michael watched very carefully Alan's meeting with Stella, *watched* Alan's face *fall* when he saw her beside Maurice and marked how nervously he fidgeted with his gloves.

ib. on the same page.

And *watching* Stanley *buttoning* his braces, she grew enthusiastic. Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 8 p. 84.

It was jolly to *watch* his eyes *twinkle* and his thin cheeks puff out.

ib. p. 95.

The kettle boils at last. I am so glad. It's always said to be dull, *watching* a kettle *boil*, but I think it's rather interesting. Cotes, Cinderella ch. 12 p. 143.

4. The student ... will probably *find* the language *present* little difficulty.

McKerrow, Engl. Assoc. Pamphlet no. 49. p. 27.

It is altogether exceptional to *find* two of the greater states *uniting* for the humiliation of a third, as England and the Empire united against Philip Augustus of France.

Davis, Med. Europe p. 158.

5. But I won't *have* that young man *speaking* of them so.

Gaskell, Wives II. p. 14.

357. When we study these sets of quotations it is impossible not to see that the ing is used because of its

durative aspect; and that in many cases the plain stem must be used because a durative form would be out of the question. This is very clear in cases when the two forms are used successively, whether in the same sentence, or in succeeding sentences: see 1 (first sentence) and 3 (first two sentences). It is also evident that in the last sentence of 3 it would be impossible to use *boiling*.

358. In accordance with the durative aspect expressed by the ing this construction may not only express duration (*a*) but also frequent repetition (*b*).

a. Through the still night I heard the nightingale calling, calling, until I could bear it no longer and went softly out into the luminous dark.

Fairless, Roadmender V.

We saw a tall gentleman standing looking at us intently and silently. So off we went again through the wood, while we heard the gentleman shouting: "Stop there, stop!"

Sweet, Spoken Engl. p. 61.

Oftentimes in winter, when no doors or windows were open, I have seen the glass panes streaming with wet inside, and women carried out fainting.

Rutherford, Autobiogr. p. 8.

b. We shall have the young men coming to dinner pretty often, you'll see.

Gaskell, Wives II p. 19.

We saw the doves and starlings going in and out the tower, and the black swifts screaming round it.

Sweet, Spoken English p. 58.

I won't have you coming in here (i. e. the sick-room).

Bennett, Clayhanger III ch. 16 § 1.

359. The object-with-plain stem, to the exclusion of the object-with-ing, is used with the verbs expressing cause (*let*, *make*, *have*): this is clearly in agreement with the explanations given in the preceding sections.

On the other hand, the object-with-ing is the only con-

struction used with *prevent*, *excuse*, negative-interrogative *help* and *mind*. This is not necessarily the result of the meanings expressed, but may be due to the origin of the construction and its grammatical character. See 373.

360. When one studies the object-with-ing construction one should be careful to distinguish it from a noun with an attributive ing. We find both constructions successively in the two stanzas of the following poem by Ralph Hodgson, *The Hammers*.

Noise of hammers once I heard,
 Many hammers, busy hammers,
 Beating, shaping, night and day,
 Shaping, beating dust and clay
 To a palace; saw it reared;
 Saw the hammers laid away.

And I listened, and I heard
 Hammers beating, night and day,
 In the palace newly reared,
 Beating it to dust and clay:
 Other hammers, muffled hammers,
 Silent hammers of decay.

Van Doorn, Primrose Path p. 12.

Stem with to and Ing Compared

361. The stem with *to* and the *ing* share a good many grammatical functions. In some cases one form is possible only, however. It will consequently be necessary in order to promote a full understanding of each form:

- (1) to consider in what cases one of the two forms only is used, and to find out why.
- (2) to consider the cases when both forms are possible, and what difference is expressed if any.

Stem with to only **362.** The stem with *to* is used to the exclusion of the *ing*:

- (1) in final and in complementary adjuncts to most verbs, nouns, and adjectives, and in free adjuncts (207 ff.).
- (2) in the plain object-with-stem construction with verbs expressing cause and will (242 ff.).
- (3) in the prepositional object-with-stem construction with adjectives, nouns, and verbs (261 ff.).
- (4) in the object-with-stem construction with the verbs of perception and of declaring (284 ff.), *except the verbs of perception that can take the object-with-plain stem.*
- (5) in complementary adjuncts with a connecting interrogative-relative word 230 ff.).
- (6) in exclamatory sentences (204 f.).

363. The first statement of the preceding section is the result of the fact that the stem with *to* can express what we may perhaps call the perfective aspect. This is the natural consequence of the use of the preposition *to*; it does not mean, and it is important to understand this clearly at the outset, that the stem with *to* is always or naturally perfective; it is so only when the stem with the prefix expresses the final meaning. It has been shown (236) that *to* can also be used in a local meaning, and further that the distinction between local and final *to* is not always possible. This is natural because direction frequently implies purpose.

Words expressing will take the stem with *to* in the object-with-stem construction because they are closely allied to the adjuncts of purpose; this is still clearer in the case of the verbs of causing that take the same construction.

It is hardly necessary, in the case of the prepositional object-with-stem, to point out that purpose is a prominent element in this construction.

364. Words expressing wish take the stem, both in adjuncts and in the object-with-stem construction, and for the same reason (*a*). And even when the stem is to be best interpreted as a complementary adjunct it is usually possible to find something of purpose in it, or of a future time that is looked forward to (*b*). If some words of wish take the object-with-ing construction (108 *b*) it is because these verbs may express a different meaning, as will be explained below (384).

a. She had the desire to do something which she objected to doing.

Bennett, Old W. Tale IV ch. 1 § 5.

The least Amy could do was to show contrition and amiability and an anxiety to please. ib. ch. 3 § 1.

She made a sign to the guard for leave to go upstairs again. Mackenzie, Sylvia and Michael p. 261.

(They) are anxious to confide in each other.

Bennett, Old W. Tale IV ch. 2 § 2 p. 458.

Sophia was very careful to make no observation.

Bennett, Old W. Tale IV ch. 3 § 3 p. 492.

There are plenty of admirable scholars capable and willing to take up the work of advanced classical courses if reasonable salaries are provided.

Times Ed. S. 11/3, 20.

b. We have no time to explore the backwaters.

Times Lit. 11/3, 20.

We were a locally minded people, and local was our history. We had not even the intelligence to write very much of that. ib.

365. The verbs of perception that take an object-with-stem may seem to weaken the theory brought forward here with regard to the aspect expressed by the stem with *to*. For many verbs of perception, such as *to see*, *feel*, and *hear*, can freely and naturally take the object-with-ing. It must be considered, however, that the verbs that take the stem-con-

struction primarily express mental perception or activity, i. e. an action thought of with regard to a definite end, hence naturally requiring a perfective form. The verbs that take the ing-construction, on the other hand, expressing as they do sensation rather than a mental activity, can naturally take a durative form.

It is in complete agreement with this that the verb *to feel* can take a stem with *to* as an adjunct when a mental perception is referred to.

I feel partly to know it (viz. the house) from my mother's descriptions. E. Everett-Green, *The Temptation of May Lister* ch. 7 p. 106.

366. The fifth group of 361 has been already dealt with in 364. As to the sixth, it does not seem to the present writer that the exclusive use of the stem in exclamations is connected, directly at any rate, with the aspect expressed by the two forms that are here compared. It may chiefly be the more definitely verbal character of the stem in contrast to the semi-derivative ing that has enabled the stem to hold its ground here so successfully.

367. The verbal ing is used, to the exclusion of the stem with *to*:

- (1) in prepositional adjuncts, except those with *to* when expressing purpose or result (207 ff.).
- (2) in plain adjuncts completing the meaning of some adjectives (90).
- (3) as an object or complementary adjunct to a number of verbs.
- (4) as an object and as a predicative adjunct with verbs that are construed with an object and predicative adjunct.
- (5) in the object-with-ing construction with the verbs enumerated in 109 ff. (*to prevent, excuse, etc.*).

368. Before we treat of the first group of the preceding section it may be well to warn the reader that it is not always evident whether we have to do with a preposition or with a conjunction. The subject is dealt with in the second volume in the chapter on *Conjunctions*, so that it will be sufficient to give a few examples here. The conjunctive character of the stem-group may be shown, as in the second example, by the use of *to* with reference to both stem-forms: this is possible because they are coordinated (344), which implies that the connecting word (*instead of*) is a conjunction, unless we prefer to define it as an adverb of negation, like *not*.

Seymour was impeached for having misappropriated these supplies — using them to retain *instead of* to disband the soldiers. Maitland, Const. Hist. p. 328.

(They) helped to lower *instead of* raise the standard of morality in the community. Const. Essays p. 335.

369. With respect to the first of the groups that take an ing only as enumerated in 367, there seems to be no reason to doubt that we must look for the cause in the distinctly more nominal character of the ing in this construction than of the stem with *to*. This is also in agreement with the form, for, as we have seen (73), the ing is in some respects rather a derivative than an inflectional form. And if an additional argument were wanted, it would be sufficient to point to the adjuncts of the ing, which may be those peculiar to nouns as well as those that can accompany verbs only.

If the ing is not used in adjuncts with final *to*, this is plainly due to the character of the group of *to* with stem in this meaning: the group is inseparable, or nearly so (considering the 'split infinitive'), and a similar (hardly the same) meaning in adjuncts to nouns must be expressed by

for; see 79, 208. And this explanation is supported by the fact that local *to* can take an ing as well as any noun. In short, we may say that the *to* before the stem is a prefix that has become one with the stem, and is never a real preposition, not even when the group expresses purpose.

370. The second group of 367, as far as the ings with *near* and *like* are concerned, are probably best accounted for in the same way. For *near* and *like* are in many respects to be classed as prepositions rather than as adjectives.

The exclusive ing with *busy* and *worth* may be a mere result of tradition, although a durative form with *busy* is so natural that one is inclined to look on this as a cause, if not of its growth, at least of its continuance. And *worth* as naturally takes an ing as it takes any other word of a nominal character (*worth a great deal*, *worth notice*).

371. The verbs that take an ing and never a stem with *to* can be distinguished as transitive and intransitive, the former taking the ing as an object, the latter as an adjunct. The classification cannot be strictly carried out because the ing, if used with a verb that can take a noun-object, may have a more or less important effect on the meaning of the verb, so that the object-character of the ing may become doubtful; similar causes affect the ing with verbs that are generally used intransitively. On this account the classification is not insisted on here.

Among the verbs that take an ing only, the most important are such as express the voluntary beginning or end of an action or occurrence: to burst out, to finish, leave off, to give up, to have done, to stop; also the following verbs that express the non-occurrence of an action: to avoid, to miss, put off, to escape, to defer; and such as express continuation: to keep, to keep on, to go on. Finally the following verbs:

to repent, to stand; to want, when meaning 'need,' *to require*, and *to need*, when the ing expresses the action as affecting the subject, not proceeding from it; and *to help* and *to mind* when used in a negative sense (mostly in negative or interrogative sentences).

372. In some cases it is quite clear that the use of the ing is the result of its noun-character: thus, *to want, need*, and *require* can be used in the same meanings with verbal nouns (*to want treatment*), and cannot take nouns in another meaning (*to want to make an excursion*, but not: *to want an excursion*).

It is well-known that a negative cannot be proved; hence the author can only state his conviction that in the following sentences the ings which illustrate the statements here made could not be replaced by a stem with *to* in standard English.

He had scarcely finished doing these things when there was a tap at the door.

Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 12 p. 141.

I have not quite finished packing yet.

Sweet, Element. no. 35.

Mrs. Soames had actually given up wearing feathers.

Galsworthy, Property ch. 1 p. 8.

He (an airman) attempted too short a turn in endeavouring to avoid dropping among the spectators.

Times W. 27/9, 12.

I hope she does not contemplate coming to the morning reading.

Dickens, Letters N.E.D.

She deferred writing the irrevocable words of parting from all her little world. Eliot, Romola II ch. 4. N.E.D.

373. If the statement that the verbs enumerated in the preceding section take an ing only is accepted, the explanation seems to be the same as in the case of *to need*, etc.: the noun-character of the ing. This will be even more acceptable as an explanation of the fourth case of 367: the ing as the object or predicative adjunct of verbs that take these two

forms to complete their meaning. With regard to the fifth group (*to prevent*, etc.) it is evident that the ing has the function of an object when the possessive with ing is used (*to prevent his joining us*), but the object-character is far from being so acceptable when the oblique with ing is used (*to prevent him joining us*). The latter construction may be a development of the former. See 359.

374. After attempting the task mentioned in **Both Stem and Ing Used** 361 under (1): to consider when either the stem or the ing is the only form possible, and explain why, we must turn to the second problem to be dealt with in this chapter: to collect the cases when both verbal forms are possible in what are more or less similar functions, and to define the differences of meaning, if there are any.

We find both forms:

- (1) as adjuncts to verbs, and in the object-with-stem or -ing.
- (2) as adjuncts to nouns and adjectives.
- (3) as subjects and nominal predicates.

375. It may be premised that the stem with *to* is invariably used when purpose must be expressed, even with the verbs that have been enumerated in 371 as taking the ing only. It would be superfluous to give more than a few examples of both constructions with these verbs.

i. A cock in the loft over our heads went on crowing, as if it would never stop. Sweet, Spoken Engl. p. 63.

"Likewise your father may just as well have his," said my Mother.

And she went on to give me the details of the premises and the little office round the corner^{1).}

Morgan, Vance ch. 14 p. 121.

1) The idea of purpose, it is true, is quite subordinate here; but the stem *to give* at any rate introduces a fresh action, whereas the ing is used when continued action is to be expressed.

2. The clock stopped striking. NED.

Nevertheless, I could not stop to argue the matter with her. Blackmore, Lorna Doone ch. 56 p. 414.

The cases of an ing with a verb of motion in 84 *a* seem to contradict these statements. It may be that the predicative verb is really the subordinate element of the groups, just as in the sentences of 84 *b*.

376. The matter becomes more difficult when we turn to the verbs that can take either a stem or an ing as a complementary adjunct or object. The number of these is very large, and the difference of meaning between the two constructions, though sometimes clear enough, is not easy to define even then, and very often the difference seems too small to be real in ordinary spoken English. And yet, there can be no doubt that there is a difference. Thus Miss Harrison¹⁾, after mentioning that Russian has two forms for the infinitive, one imperfective and the other perfective, remarks: "Now English has not these two infinitives and, being a sensitive language, it feels the need and often substitutes for the imperfective infinitive a participle or a substantive . . . 'I don't like to write' — that is foreigner's English. An Englishman would substitute for the Russian imperfective infinitive a gerund — I don't like writing."

In the same way *dining* is more appropriate than the stem would be in the following quotation.

I'm so sorry I've had to leave you entirely to yourself, but I've not had a moment, and I hate dining when I can't talk. Mackenzie, Sylvia and Michael p. 229.

377. It may seem that the explanation suggested by Miss Harrison, that the difference between the stem and the ing

1) Aspects, Aorists and the Classical Tripos. Cambridge 1919.

is one of aspect, is at variance with the distinction between the two forms made in considering the reasons for the exclusive use of the ing (367 ff.). But the durative aspect of the ing is not really independent of the grammatical character of the ing as an abstract noun: on the contrary, it is when the ing is most clearly an abstract noun, when it is a grammatical subject, e. g., that its durative aspect is most apparent. In other cases, however, when it is used in a prepositional adjunct, e. g., there is no question of a durative aspect; this aspect would be hard to account for if only because in such a case the ing is the only form possible. The abstract verbal noun naturally expresses a durative aspect because it expresses the action as a process, not as a single actual event. This explains, too, why the ing is naturally used to express the repetition of an action.

378. Verbs expressing the beginning or ending of an action generally take the ing (371). But some may take either form: *to begin, to cease, to recommence*. This is not a 'freak of language,' as outsiders are apt to express it, but shows real differences in the speaker's mind¹⁾. These verbs take an ing when they are the leading element in the verbal group, so that the ing takes the nature of an object, expressing a process (*a*). But when these verbs are used as modifiers of the following verb the latter takes the form of the stem, and the former assumes something of the character of an auxiliary (*b*). Observe also that *to begin* with an ing expresses a voluntary action whereas with a stem it may express a gradual process, not a beginning at all (*c*).

1) If *to finish* and *to leave off* take an ing whereas the 'synonymous' *to end* does not, the reason is the same. Compare this quotation:

Does not Aristotle say that a drama ends, but an epic poem only leaves off? English history, as it is popularly related, not only has no distinct end, but leaves off in such a gradual manner, etc. Seeley, Expansion Lect. I.

a. On his return to England he began studying law, but very soon abandoned it for literature.

Sturge-H., *Meredith* p. 9.

Without raising her voice she began answering his question. *ib. ch. 19 p. 231.*

Charmian threw herself down with a movement that was very young and began taking off her long gloves.

Hichens, *Ambition* ch. 9 p. 107.

Now don't begin eating at once.

Bennett, *Old W. T.* III ch. 4 § 1.

Mrs. Bute and Lady Southdown never could meet without battles, and gradually ceased seeing each other.

Vanity Fair ch. 40.

b. About this time he left off alluding to his "work" and began to call his writings "stuff".

Galsworthy, *Caravan* p. 419.

Frederic saw it with immense relief, and ceased to take any interest in old Lawrie. *Cannan, Corner* ch. 9 p. 88.

Sir Francis doubtless found more satisfaction in ambitious work which decreased in value as they ceased to depend upon his researches in the Chapter House or Chancery Lane. *Times Lit. 22/5, 19.*

Moreover, she was conscious of a new feeling in her body, as though the fount of physical energy within her, long interrupted, had recommenced to flow—but very slowly, a trickling.

Bennett, *Old W. Tale* III ch. 5 § 1 p. 345.

c. It was only in this relative calm that the Clayhanger family and its dependants began to realise the intensity of the experience through which they had passed.

Bennett, *Clayhanger* I ch. 13 § 1.

Daylight began to forsake the red room; it was past four o'clock, and the beclouded afternoon was tending to drear twilight. *Brontë, Jane Eyre*, ch. 2.

We are beginning to realise that punishment alone is not sufficient. *English Review*, March 1914 p. 575.

Two weeks of comfortable if monotonous travelling land us in the capital of the Chinese Empire, and European residents in China are already beginning to

arrange to spend their summer holidays in the Mother-country.
Everyman, 28/2, 1913, p. 618/1.

His views on the religious and political condition of the country began to crystallise.

Lytton Strachey, Em. Vict. p. 179.

From two sides, this system of education was beginning to be assailed by the awakening public opinion of the upper middle classes.
ib. p. 181.

379. It seems in contradiction with what has been said in the preceding section under *c* that we find *begin* with an ing in the following sentences.

And her eyes began filling with tears.

Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 14 p. 170.

It was so piteous to her poor human nature that her heart began wildly palpitating. Meredith, R. Feverel, ch. 1.

It is possible that the writers of these sentences have used the exceptional form in an attempt to be 'literary.' But they may be genuine English: *begin* may be so much weakened in meaning that it does not suffice to express the aspect of the action, so that we have here an equivalent to the progressive with *to be*.

380. What has been said of *to begin* may also be said of *to start*.

a. Look out of the window, it's just started snowing.
Collinson, Spoken English p. 32.

b. I threw the bobbin high into the air, and started rapidly to recite Wordsworth's *Excursion*.

Punch, 9/10, 1907 p. 266.

"If I may be permitted to say so," said the maid, as she started to shut the door, "she might quite possibly like to see you".
ib. 29/10, 1909, p. 221.

Whereupon we started to argue the whole question over again.
Kingsley and Malet, Tutor's Story p. 369.

I seized the knife and fork and started to carve.

Jerome, Idle Thoughts p. 126. 1)

381. It seems unnecessary to add any comments to the following quotations; they are essentially of the same type as those that have been treated more fully in the preceding sections, but will repay careful comparison by the student.

At the jeopardy of her life a woman *confesses* having a snake familiar, which appears to her in her sleep.

Lowie, Pr. Religion p. 51 f.

Burke . . . had decided to keep himself in hand until the time should come when he should *dare* risking a declaration in form. Bar. von Hutten, Pam IV ch. 1 p. 158.

Miss Payne said she was very fond of aeroplaning, and had no fear, but she *declined* to be strapped into the seat.

Daily News.

Molly *dreaded* seeing either of the brothers again.

Gaskell, Wives I ch. 18 p. 314.

Lizzie often *enjoyed* to break from work for half an hour, stroll down to the quarry, and climb to the mouth of the kilns. Phillpotts, Beacon II ch. 12 p. 254.

"I don't think you ought to cherish that luncheon," I told him; "it just didn't happen to agree with us, and we ought to forget it."

"Well, if you think going to dinner will help you to forget going to lunch . . ." Cotes, Cinderella ch. 9 p. 99.

I *hate* being called Mr. Westcott by anybody.

Walpole, Fortitude III ch. 1 § 3 p. 238.

Suppose, for example, that the Salvationists advertise throughout the town that they *intend* holding a meeting in a field which they have hired near Oxford, that they *intend* to assemble in St. Giles's and march thence with banners flying and bands playing to their proposed place of worship. Dicey, Constitution, Lect. VI, p. 289.

I had *intended* translating all or nearly all these Idylls into blank verse . . . But I found that other metres had their special advantages.

Calverley p. XXXI.

1) The quotations under *b* are borrowed from van der Gaaf's article in *Engl. Studien* 62 p. 409.

The summer was well advanced and most people who intended going out of Town had already left.

Garvice, Staunch as a Woman p. 211.

He did not intend to tell her that he was going to ride in a race. ib. p. 244.

Se liked going to the theatre.

A. C. Bradley, Essays II 18.

Johnson had a strong affection for his College, and liked going to stay there in the days of his glory. His usual host was one Dr. Adams, the Master of Pembroke.

Bailey, Johnson.

"I think I should like gambling," Lily said, "if only one didn't have to shuffle and cut all the time."

Mackenzie, Sylvia p. 317.

The Country in a general way does want the Constitution preserved, and particularly disliked seeing it arbitrarily broken by the irresponsible Peers. Daily News.

He forgave her because she was a nice girl, with beautiful rows of teeth and merry eyebrows. He might have forgiven her if she had been a dowdy. But he liked forgiving those teeth, and those eyebrows.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 2 p. 9.

I never was a wireless "fan," though I liked pottering (to potter) about with it. Collinson, Spoken English p. 76.

Kezia liked to stand so before the window. She liked the feeling of the cold shining glass against her hot palms, and she liked to watch the funny white tops that came on her fingers when she pressed them hard against the pane. Mansfield, Bliss p. 6.

He liked to invite people and to pay for them, and he disliked to be invited and paid for.

Henry James, Reverberator p. 54.

I mean having this out with the beggar.

F. Anstey, In Brief Authority ch. 14 p. 236.

"They told grandpapa that you were going to-night." — "Then they were wrong," he replied in his curt fashion. "I didn't mean going, so here I am."

Garvice, Staunch as a Woman p. 28.

I resolved to begin as I meant to end. Bailey, Johnson.

They *neglected* to use certain parts of the rite of Holy Baptism upon which Roman theologians in recent years had come to lay great stress. Wakeman, Introd. p. 16.

We have *neglected* looking after our safety.

Sat. Rev. (Poutsma).

Nor did this collector of celebrities *omit* to visit Rousseau. Bailey, Johnson p. 76.

They *omit* to consider what poetry is¹⁾.

Abercrombie, Epic p. 24.

What our new race-improvers *propose* doing, when they get their chance, I dare not conjecture.

English Review, Aug. '13.

When on the eve of their marriage he had *proposed* to her building a house, she had suggested that perhaps one of the beautiful old ones already existing in Paris might do. Mary Borden, Jane — Our Stranger I, 130.

Well, that's plain enough at any rate — and when do you *propose* leaving us? Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 5 § 4 p. 109.

Mrs. Johnson brought her husband several hundred pounds, part of which was at once spent in hiring and furnishing a large house at Edial where Johnson *proposed* to take pupils. Bailey, Johnson.

He pledged his word she would not *regret* following his advice. Mackenzie, Sylvia p. 352.

382. The following sentences may finally be added by way of showing that each case must be treated on its own merits, although, of course, the general principles stated must be applied.

Herr Gottfried, he reflected, must think that he, Peter, had mints of money if he could so lightly and on so slender a warning *propose his abandoning* his precious two pounds a week. Walpole, Fortitude II ch. 3 p. 173 f.

What is it to me if That Man is that Spanish woman's lover? — Her own, sincere heart answered her with

1) To *omit* is generally stated to be a verb that can take an ing; I have never found an example in living English, however.

new-born knowledge: "You *mind*, not only *to find* him that Spanish woman's lover, but any woman's lover".

Ruck, *The Pearl Thief* p. 259.

Originally, a shower-bath, coal-storage and a water draw off on the upper storey were projected, but had to be abandoned on account of cost. It is highly desirable that the margin of cost should be increased, *to allow of these being included.* Studio, March 1931 p. 176 f.

In the first of these sentences the ing must be used because the subject is required. In the second the stem *to find* is not really the object of *mind*, from which it is separated completely, but rather an adjunct expressing circumstances or cause. In the last quotation *to allow of* is really a different verb from *to allow*.

383. Verbs that are construed with a fixed preposition (*to aim at*, *to object to*, etc.) naturally take an ing only. But many of these verbs can also take a stem with *to*; the result is a more or less subordinate position of the first verb of the group.

All his successors have *aimed*, according to their capacity, *at providing* us with studies of the same subject from different points of view.

Leslie Stephen, George Eliot p. 113.

Literatures that *aim to have* more than a local appeal.
Sapir, Language p. 159.

Instead of men *aiming to advance* in life with glory they should calculate how to retreat out of it without shame. Hardy, *Return of the Native* VI ch. 1.

384. We have seen that both the plain object and the prepositional object can form a syntactic group with the stem (*I should like you to help me* and *I waited for him to come and help us*) and with the ing (*I shan't prevent you going*, and *I depend upon them understanding that I am quite serious*). Each of these constructions has its own range: they cannot be substituted for each other.

The reason for the use of the stem in these constructions is generally so clearly the final meaning of the verb that no discussion seems necessary here after what has been said about these constructions. Nor does it seem necessary to do more than refer to the comparison of the constructions with an object-with-plain stem and with an ing after the verbs of sensation and perception (339). But a word must be added here about the verbs of wish that take both an object-with-stem (with *to*) and an object-with-ing, such as *to wish*, *to like*, etc. (see 108 b).

The stem in the construction with verbs such as *to wish*, *to like*, *to hate*, has been explained as being ultimately an adjunct of purpose or result. It is impossible thus to account for the ing, and yet it is used with these verbs. It must be considered, however, that the verbs, though connected with those of will, are really rather verbs of sensation: *to like* does not express will but a pleasant sensation, and the same can be said of the other verbs that take both constructions. A careful consideration of the examples in 108 b will show that the ing is used when the sensation is contemporaneous, whereas the stem is apt to be used when it is expected in the future. For this reason the sense would be affected if in the following sentences an ing were substituted for the stem, or vice versa.

In an article describing some household novelties it is suggested that many ladies prefer the telephone *to be* out of sight. We ourselves prefer the thing *to be* out of earshot.
Punch's Almanack for 1931.

It was so funny that it set me *thinking* afresh.

H. James, Sacred Fount ch. 2 p. 21.

Martial set himself *to amuse* Rome. Times Lit. 18/3, 20.

"No," said Bags. "I don't want *to give* you three with a racquet-handle, as we made it up last night. And I don't want you *turning* everything upside down in my cubicle."
Benson, Blaize ch. p. 46.

I'd put down three hundred a year to pension the old boy — but I'm damned if I want him *living* within a morning's drive of me — as boots at a pub.¹⁾

Warwick Deeping, Old Pybus III, 4 p. 33.

Similar considerations will account for the fact that such a verb as *to depend upon* can take either the prepositional object-with-stem or with-ing; but *to insist upon* takes the ing construction only (*I insist upon Betty apologizing*).

385. It has been shown that nouns and adjectives, like verbs, take a stem with *to* when the meaning of purpose or result is more or less evident (214 f.). On the other hand, an ing must be used with nouns and adjectives that are construed with a fixed preposition such as *facility for*, *faculty for*, *joy at*, *objection to*, and *bent on*, *clever at*, etc. as illustrated in 76.

When the relation is one that would be expressed by *of* with a noun, the ing (with *of*) is the only construction that is possible or, at least, usual.

Few methods of falsifying historical truth are more seductive than its simplification. Times Lit. 11/3, 20.

In little more than another hundred years they are full-blown national histories; towns only become vocal on the eve of merging into the nation.

It would have given to Constance the air of being in awe of Sophia.

Bennett, Old W. Tale IV ch. 2 § 1, p. 452.

This business of preparing for the advent of Sophia had appeared to her genuinely colossal. ib. p. 455.

The practice of encouraging a servant to plunge without warning of any kind into a drawing-room had never been favoured in that house. ib. § 2 p. 462.

1) It is evident that this sentence is negative in meaning, and that there is no reference to the establishment of a condition of things that the speaker wishes to prevent: the 'old boy' is living near. Observe, too, that all the examples of *want* with an object and ing in 108b are also negative.

She tasted dainties for the sake of tasting.

ib. p. 461.

Sylvia was really glad when the sound of loud knocking upon the door downstairs prevented any further discussion of the accident of their relationship.

Mackenzie, Sylvia and Michael p. 261.

Vives's record up to the time of coming to England was noteworthy, even for a Renaissance scholar.

Times Lit. 25/II, 20.

But if these eastern merchants have the credit of bringing civilization to Britain, the Iberian tribesmen had the wit to adapt their teaching.

Trevelyan, Hist. of Engl. p. 7.

386. Some nouns (*a*) and adjectives (*b*) are construed with a fixed preposition, at least in some of their meanings. Thus *need* in one of its meanings requires an adjunct with *for*. Such words can naturally take an ing with the preposition, but also a stem with to.

a. He had a singular aptitude for dealing with the difficulties of a crisis. Lit. World.

Sophia watched the preparations, and the increasing agitation of Constance's demeanour, with an astonishment which she had real difficulty in concealing.

Bennett, Old W. Tale IV ch. 3 § 3.

They have good honest hatred, as a motive for accusing him. Lewes, Hist. of Phil.

Hastings had no motive to treat the late ministers with rigour. Macaulay, Essays.

Hastings was now confident of victory. It seemed indeed that he had reason to be so. ib.

There is reason for believing that Erasmus manifested no inclination to acquire the vernacular language in any of the various countries in which, from time to time, he took up his residence. Times Lit. 25/II, 20.

I really sympathised with him for his reluctance to give his consent. —

"Oh, I shall be all right." He was very gruff. He felt now a furious angry reluctance at leaving her behind.
Walpole, Fort. II ch. 5 p. 196.

b. I was surprised to meet him.

But the Grenvilles would have been almost as much surprised at finding their conduct provoke a sermon as at learning what kind of people have become their successors to day. Times Lit. 14/10, 20.

I do not agree with you in thinking her right in refusing a second marriage.

Meredith, Harrington ch. 47 p. 471.

You were quite right to refuse his invitation.

387. It has also been shown that some words that regularly take an adjunct with *to* and a noun, can also take a stem and an ing, both with *to*.

Sometimes both forms are possible. The difference between the two constructions, as far as there is any, is one of aspect.

1. Hence, on second thoughts, he felt dislike to refuse the invitation. Patterson, Compton p. 146.

Here he had a dislike to being an outsider in such a matter as common garb. ib. p. 105.

2. I am trying to find a means to get rid of him.

We should be engaged in finding means to getting rid of that more serious danger.

Freeman, Growth p. 157.

3. We are accustomed to call the first the cause, and the last the effect. NED.

Another reason is that Europeans are accustomed to seeing women, and Turks are not.

Athenaeum 28/3, 14. 4.

4. For this purpose the four Vice-Presidents of the Chamber would be requested to examine the whole mass of evidence and documents collected by the Commission, and, after choosing those necessary *to forming* judgment on the case, to publish and lay them before Parliament.

Times W.

5. Their eyes met and saw a thousand things in a moment that their lips came near to say.

Wells, Country p. 30.

It was near to being a uniform. See 92.

6. These are the artifices which go to make up comedy. Times Lit. 20/6, 14.

Loving thought and care had gone to making the place seemly and beautiful.

Benson, Thread of Gold p. 11.

388. Just as there are many verbs that may take an ing as well as a stem with *to* as an object or complementary adjunct, there are many nouns and adjectives that may be completed by a stem with *to* or by an ing with *of*. The meaning naturally varies more or less markedly according to the construction that is used, as is shown with special clearness by the first two quotations.

He was in the act of consummating all earthly bliss by pressing his lips to the small white hand.

Meredith, Feverel ch. 14.

He was in act to fire.

Buchanan, That Winter Night ch. 3.

The pitiful ambition of possessing five or six thousand more acres. Burke.

An intelligent jury has been fired with the ambition to find an answer to the momentous question: "Are dramatic critics of any use?" Times.

And Constance did not estimate highly the chances of picking out an unknown Sophia from that welter.

Bennett, Old W. Tale IV ch. 2 § 2.

This would at least give our boys a chance to be pitted against the Americans. Rev. of Rev.

He repudiates all charges of aiming at dictatorship. Graphic.

She had strict charge to avoid the subject.

Dickens, Copperfield.

To whom have I the honour of talking?

Trevelyan, Life of Macaulay.

I had not the honour to belong to so sacred a profession.
ib.

It was a habit which she had formed in the Rue Lord Byron — by accident rather than with an intention to utilize list slippers for the effective supervision of servants. Bennett, Old W. Tale IV ch. 3 § 1 p. 474.

She had no intention of donning her best mantle for such an excursion. ib. IV ch. 2 § 1 p. 452.

Sylvia went down to the cabaret that evening with the firm intention of its being the last occasion¹⁾.

Mackenzie, Sylvia and Michael p. 13.

"The fear of death is by way of being an impertinent assumption of a knowledge of the hereafter, and... we have no reason to believe it is any worse condition than our present. I am not afraid to die — but I am afraid of dying." Wallace, The Four Just Men ch. 3 p. 50.

389. Nouns that can take either a stem or an ing with a fixed preposition can sometimes also be construed with *of* and an ing.

The difficulty of answering the question "What is truth?" involves a corresponding problem in the definition of what is fiction. Times Lit. 12/8, 20.

We must neglect no opportunity of putting her in her place. J. C. Snaith, The Adventurous Lady p. 69.

He always had some audience, so that Alvina had opportunity to come into contact with all the odd people of the inferior stage²⁾.

D. H. Lawrence, The Lost Girl p. 132.

1) The ing is the only form that can be used here because it enables the subject to be expressed. But, apart from that, a noun like *intention* can take the stem of a verb expressing action only, not a state; this is the consequence of the final meaning of the relation expressed by the stem after words of will.

2) Compare 213.

They could have hardly devised a better opportunity for furthering their own projects.

Freeman, Joseph ch. 5 p. 29.

390. When nouns or adjectives take both a stem and a prepositional ing (*surprised to hear it, surprised at hearing it*) the difference in meaning between the two constructions is that between an adverb adjunct and a prepositional object. It may be compared with the difference between clauses with *that* and those with a conjunctive adverb, e.g. *I am surprised that he is not coming, I am surprised because he is not coming*.

391. The stem with *to* and the plain *ing* are both used as adjuncts to nouns; the stem invariably follows the leading noun, the *ing* may follow or precede. Both forms have been illustrated in this function in the chapters on the respective verbal forms (95 f., 212 ff.). It is hardly necessary to mention here that the stem is the only form that can be used as long as there is something of purpose or result in the relation of meaning between the two elements of the group. But we also find the stem when there is no such meaning, as shown in 225 ff., and it will be useful to compare this use of the stem with the attributive *ing*.

392. One point of difference is evident: the *ing* can precede or follow the noun, the stem can follow only. The reason is plain: just as the *ing* when used in a function resembling that of a noun is more of a noun than the stem which is similarly used, so the *ing* when used attributively is more of an attributive adjective than the stem. There is also a difference of meaning between the two forms, however. On studying the quotations of 225 ff. it will be easy to see that the substitution of an *ing* for the stem would be out of the question; the alternative form would be equally inadmissible in the sentences with the attributive *ing*. One difference is clear: the *ing* expresses the verbal meaning as actual, the

stem as prospective, a difference which naturally proceeds from the fundamental meaning of each form. But the prospective meaning is absent in a case like *the last to arrive*, and other examples of 227; compare also *coming events cast their shadows before* and *Bright dreams of happiness yet to come* (NED s.v. come no. 32 b). In these cases the difference seems to be one of aspect, the ing expressing the durative aspect, the stem an action or occurrence that is looked at, if not with respect to its end, at least without any durative meaning.

The explanation suggested seems to account for the undoubted fact that *resting* in the following sentence could not be replaced by *to rest*, although both forms are used attributively.

As the resting man looked at the barrow he became aware that its summit, etc. Hardy, Native I ch. 2 p. 14.

393. The last functions to be discussed are the stem and the ing as subjects and as nominal predicates.

We have seen that the ing when used as a verbal noun is distinctly more of a noun; this is the cause of the ing expressing a state whereas the stem with *to* is rather a phenomenon-word. Hence the ing is often used as a subject in abstract sentences, i. e. sentences making a general statement. The stem, on the other hand, is more verbal in character; hence it is found in sentences referring to a special case.

We can say: *To talk for hours at a stretch is more exhausting than you seem to think.* It would be said, e. g., by a man who had just spoken for a long time.

But *talking* would be substituted if the observation was made in the course of a conversation on the physical effects of speaking for a long time by persons not thinking of their own experiences.

394. The following sentences seem to illustrate the distinction made between the two verbal forms when used as the grammatical subject of the sentence.

Speech is so familiar a feature of daily life that we rarely pause to define it. It seems as natural to man as walking, and only less so than breathing. (*Walking and breathing* are compared with the noun *speech*).

Sapir, *Language* p. 1.

Then it was recollected that there was a family ghost: and though no member of the family believed in the ghost, none would have given up a circumstance that testified to its existence; for *to possess a ghost is a distinction above titles* (the statement in italics represents the thoughts of the inhabitants, hence it is a special case).

Meredith, R. Feverel.

To attain to a finely ordered artistic structure was beyond Malory's power.

Vaughan had been very near to death; and to be turned back from that door gives a strange and crooked look to the street of life. Times Lit. 15/7, 15.

It was so odd not knowing that fellows swore when they jammed their fingers in doors, or were suddenly annoyed at anything. Benson, Blaize ch. 4 p. 77.

It's dreadful waiting on people one doesn't like.

Vachell, Brothers II ch. 5 p. 55.

To suggest that there is no time to write dispatches would be almost as bad as explaining that an army was too busy to fight. Times W. 21/9, 17.

395. Sometimes it seems reasonable to suppose that the ing is used because it has a durative aspect.

Reading him is like looking at a series of pictures by Rubens which are all so energetic and masterly in manner that we cannot tell which he painted only for the sake of painting. Times Lit. 14/9, 22, p. 574/1.

It is a conversational style and *to read* it is like hearing him speak. ib. p. 573/4 (same author).

To read the pages of M. de Labriolle's most interesting work is to be convinced that the literature he writes of so learnedly and excitingly ought not to be left so much to specialists. ib. p. 582 4.

396. Naturally, there is often no necessity to distinguish between a general or a special sentence; or rather a general statement may be made even when it is intended to apply to a special case. Compare the use of the indefinite pronoun *one* meaning *anyone*.

Thus a girl, riding on horseback in the company of her father, says (Gaskell, *Wives* I ch. 2 p. 39):

We're getting into the shadow of the trees, and it's not safe riding fast here.

The form *riding*, no doubt, causes the sentence to convey a general statement. But that does not prevent it from being applied to the special case.

When we quote a proverb it is to apply a general statement to a special case; this explains why the ing must be used in the first of the following quotations, and its contrast with the apparently identical case in the second sentence, where both forms would be possible.

It is no use crying over spilt milk.

Blackmore, Lorna Doone ch. 30 p. 197.

It is no use to deny that I was greatly dashed and scared at first. ib. ch. 59 p. 447.

397. The use of the stem as a subject at the head of the sentence, or at any rate before the predicative verb, is not very common (299). It will be useful, therefore, to compare the stem as a subject in sentences with formal *it*.

On the interpretation of sentences with 'provisional' *it*, see the chapter on *Sentence-Structure*.

It's absurd your going in one of those awful steamers from Marseilles when the yacht is only half an hour away. Hichens, Ambition ch. 20 p. 232.

Claude won't go. It's no use for me to say anything.
ib. ch. 26, p. 327.

Oh, we women are contemptible, sometimes. It's no use our pretending we aren't. ib. ch. 34 p. 433.

It's no use for you to be angry with me.

Sinister Street p. 1051.

It's not a bit of good your running me down, Fane.

ib. p. 910.

It is worth while asking how far their education influenced or contributed to their success.

It is perhaps worth while remarking that competition is a method which to a superficial observer is not to the interests of the less wealthy.

Still, the book is one which even advanced scholars may find it worth their while to peruse.

It is worth while to remark that in some instances words have undergone changes of meaning because in their literary use they have been popularly misunderstood.

It is perhaps superfluous to remind the reader that the ing is the only form that is possible when the meaning is not exclusively verbal, as in the following quotation.

We reached the fruit country a week or two before *picking* commenced. Davies, Super-Tramp ch. 9 p. 66.

398. The difference between the ing and the stem with *to* as nominal predicates is probably the same as when they are subjects (393 ff.); but the ing in this function is comparatively rare; see 100. In the following sentences the alternative form would be inadmissible for the reasons stated in the preceding sections on the use of the forms as grammatical subjects.

(395). One of the habits that Sylvia had acquired on tour in France was card-playing.

Mackenzie, Sylvia p. 317.

(393 f.). In India, when you leave your hotel and want to tip the sweeper, you must not hold out the coin, expecting him to take it. His immediate reaction to your gesture will be *to shrink away*; for if your fingers were to touch his receiving palm you would be defiled.

Huxley, Vulgarity p. 4.

(393 f.). I am eliminating entirely the possibility of compounding two or more radical elements into single words or wordlike phrases. *To expressly consider* compounding in the present survey of types would be *to complicate* our problem unduly. Sapir, Language p. 145 (footnote).

Verbals and Other Verbal Words

399. By the side of the plain verb stem, the stem with *to*, and the form in *ing* there are frequently other words of related form that serve similar or identical purposes. Thus, by the side of *cry*, *to cry*, and *crying*, we have an apparent 'noun' in *to have a good cry*, and a really different word, different also in meaning, in the class-noun *cry* (*I heard two distinct cries*). And it is impossible to identify the verbal *ing* *crying* with the word as used in *a crying shame*, which contains what we may call the adjective *crying*. Similarly, by the side of *treat* and its usual verbal companions, we have *treatment*, as well as the class-noun *a treat*. And we have *temptation*, *affliction*, *humiliation*, *promotion*, etc. by the side of the more 'purely verbal' *tempt*, *tempting*, etc.

No grammatical description of living English can be considered at all complete, in whatever sense this much-abused term may be taken, without a mention of this important side of English sentence-structure. But it is a borderland between the grammar and the dictionary that we are here dealing with, i. e. no satisfactory treatment is likely to be provided by either on account of its inherent difficulty, not so much the difficulty of understanding each individual case, as the difficulty of reducing the facts to anything even remotely resembling a system. What will be attempted here is the supplying of some considerations that will draw the student's attention to some leading points, as a guide to personal study.

400. The case of *cry* as illustrated in the preceding section has shown that by the side of the three verbal forms

treated until now (the plain stem, the stem with *to*, and the *ing*) there may be a clearly verbal noun of the same form as the stem that can hardly be called a class-noun in spite of the indefinite article (*to have a good cry*), and differs materially from the class-noun *cry*. There is more to be considered; for the word class-noun, however convenient and indeed necessary it is in grammatical discussion, covers very different nouns. It may be best to take an example illustrating one of these points of difference.

Virginia's reply to Miss Nunn's letter brought another note next morning — Saturday. It was to request a call from the sisters that same afternoon.

Gissing, *The Odd Women* ch. 3.

In the first of these sentences *note* is followed by *next morning*, but it is not necessary to show that the latter is an adjunct to *brought*: it is only verbs that take a non-prepositional adjunct of this sort. A noun like *note* requires a preposition to connect it with another noun (apart from the attributive use of nouns). It is in contradiction with this statement that *call* in the next sentence does take such an adjunct: *that same afternoon*. The explanation is clear enough: *call*, though a class-noun in its syntactical use, is so clearly verbal in meaning that it shares a peculiarity with verbs that other class-nouns do not. A 'complete' classification of the functions of verb stems would consequently have to distinguish between the non-predicative stem in purely verbal groups (*You may call me John*), the converted noun (*to have a good cry*), the verbal class-noun (*call* as used in the sentence quoted), and the non-verbal class-noun (*I heard two distinct cries*). Another case is presented by the following sentence from the same book: *It was a face that invited, that compelled study* (ch. 3). The noun *study* is not a class-noun, but rather an abstract noun; but it is quite as verbal as the class-noun *cry* or the noun *call* in the sentence just discussed.

There is no doubt that further consideration would reveal the justification for making more distinctions, based on real grammatical (not semantic) differences. No attempt to increase the number of distinctions between the various uses of the verb stem will be made here: because it can hardly be of use to the student. It is of far greater importance for him to understand that all our classifications are really extremely crude, however refined and delicate they may seem.

The forms with ing present similar complications. Thus, by the side of the verbal forms *long*, *to long*, *longing*, or *warn* with its companions, we also have the class-nouns *longing*, *warning*; by the side of the verbal ing of *charm* we have the adjective *charming*; by the side of *contemplate*, etc. with its usual verbal companions we have the abstract derivatives *contemplation*, *ministration*, *intercession*, etc. The existence of such nouns naturally has an effect on the use of the regular verbal which thus finds parts of its 'proper' field occupied. The following quotations illustrate this clearly, so that no comment seems needed.

The truth of the matter, as Mr. Chesterton would say, is, first, that writing, along with speaking, eating, sleeping, and putting on clothes, and coming out of the rain, is one of the great universal acts of modern life. In the second place it is also true that writing is, in its finer qualities, comparatively rare, a distinction which it shares with *speaking*, *cookery*, *dressing*, *house-building*, and the *sleep* of a tranquil and untroubled mind.

Brewster, Writing of English p. 7.

The subject deserves fuller treatment than can be given to it here. NED s.v. *deserve*.

The charge that they have been used in an arbitrary and capricious manner will not bear investigation.

Times Lit. 25/1, 18.

A force which is not of their *creation*.

Escott, England I 123.

There is a second point in this passage which needs discussion. Essays and Studies IX p. 38.

It is beyond argument that the need for educational revolution exists. Times Ed. S. 1/2, 16.

For three days passion has run very high in the Chamber, and the sittings have been stormy beyond description. Times W. 28/12, 17.

There are, as ever, excellent reasons for personal despair; while the reasons for despairing about society are actually a good deal more cogent than at most times. A Mallarméan shrinking away into pure poetry, a delicate Henry-Jamesian avoidance of all the painful issues would seem to be justified. But the spirit of the time — the industrially heroic time in which we live — is opposed to these retirements, these handings over of life to footmen. Huxley, Vulgarity in Lit. p. 13.

In the heath's barrenness to the farmer lay its fertility to the historian. There had been no obliteration, because there had been no tending.

Hardy, Native I ch. 3 p. 18.

She moved back with a last little nod at him and he went awkwardly out of the room with a curious little sense of sudden dismissal.

Walpole, Fortitude II ch. 5 p. 197.

After some persuasion he relented.

Lytton Strachey, Books and Characters p. 3.

If there's any more snow, the children will be able to toboggan down the hill. — Then there'll be lots of tumbles and bruises. Collinson, Spoken English p. 32.

And yet, in spite of multitudinous handicaps, man continued the struggle to free himself from the worn-out shackles of the past. Botsford, Engl. Soc. 18th cent. p. 3.

For when the Greek delegate (too Socratic by half) suggested that it might be a good thing to establish a preliminary definition of the word 'obscene', Sir Archibald Bodkin sprang to his feet with a protest¹⁾.

Huxley, Vulgarity p. 1.

1) Compare: *to protest*.

401. The verbal ing has been treated here as a part of the verbal system, as far as we can speak of one in English; and the nouns and adjectives in -ing have been relegated to the chapter on *Derivation*, in the third volume. But it is often a very arbitrary classification, as may be shown by the two uses of *singing* in this passage, and by the distinctly verbal meaning of *parting*, although it is frequently purely nominal.

To a Concert. — Was there any singing as well? — Yes. The bass was best of all. The baritone, tenor, contralto and alto sang correctly, but their singing was rather uninspired. Collinson, Spoken English p. 80.

I found myself saying "Good-bye." I heard the word 'good-bye' spoken. It was a signal not of a parting but of a uniting. Edward Thomas, in Van Kranendonk, Contemp. Prose I p. 183.

402. With regard to the aspect of the verbal forms Dr. Murray, in the NED s.v. -ing, observes that the ing expresses continuous action in a good many cases, a single action being expressed by the stem used as a class-noun: *crying* and *cry*. As shown above this is true only if we except the use of *cry* as a converted verb in *to have a good cry*, when the action is certainly as continuous as in *crying*, however used.

Such pairs as *crying* and the class-noun *cry* are also used in the case of *fall*, *kick*, *push*, *run*, *sleep*, *strike*, and a great many more verbs. But it will be shown, in the chapter on *Derivation*, that the words in -ing often denote single actions and also concrete ideas: *christening*, *wedding*, *meeting*; *binding*, *sewing*, etc. The use of plural words in -ing as in *her comings and goings* (Hardy, Native II ch. 6 p. 177), *its successive rises and fallings in level* (Oman, Conquest p. 1) will also be treated there.

Verbals and Subordinate Clauses

403. Many of the uses of the verbals are similar to such as can be served by subordinate clauses too. The difference is generally that the subordinate clause more clearly expresses the relations between the parts of the sentence. It does this by the conjunction, by its definite subject and its verbal form, which may clearly express time and person.

404. Thus the plain stem always has its subject indicated either by the subject of the sentence (when it is used with auxiliaries) or by the noun or pronoun preceding it (in the object-with-plain stem).

There is one case, however, when there may be a necessity of indicating the subject specially; this may occur when the plain stem forms a group with the modal preterite *I had*, *I would*, usually *I'd*. In such a case a subordinate clause is the only way to express the meaning required.

I'd rather people didn't know that your mother was only a governess. Temple Thurston, *Antagonists* I ch. 4 p. 41.

"I'd much rather you wouldn't make me hit you, you know," he said. Anstey, *Vice Versa* ch. 2.

We had rather that you should come to Rome at first under the patronage of another.

Shorthouse, *Inglesant* ch. 21 p. 215.

No one shall know; but I think I would rather you chose for me; what you like I shall like.

Montgomery, *Misunderstood*.

Would you rather he remained obscure and entirely yours? Hichens, *Ambition* ch. 34 p. 422.

Would she rather he didn't know Miss Rossiter, he vaguely wondered. Women were such queer creatures.

Walpole, *Fortitude* II ch. 5 p. 197.

405. We have seen that with the verbs *to feel*, *to hear*, and *to see*, and a few others we find the object-with-plain stem of verbs to express an action or occurrence (197 ff.).

By the side of the sentence *I heard him say that*, however, we also find *I heard that he said that*. There is something in the explanation that the first sentence relates a sensation, the second a mental perception. But it cannot be denied that the distinction is rather vague and hardly bears a close analysis. Perhaps the difference is more satisfactorily stated when we say that *to hear* in the first sentence, when it is construed with an object-with-plain stem, expresses a durative aspect, and in the other a perfective aspect.

This would enable us to understand why the object-with-plain stem is only used when the stem expresses an action or occurrence: a durative verb necessarily refers to an action or occurrence. It would also enable us to understand why *to watch* is construed with the object-with-plain stem, but not with a subordinate clause nor an object-with-stem with *to*, for the verb is invariably durative.

The use of the ing instead of the plain stem depends upon the aspect of the *second* verb in the construction; this difference has been fully treated in the chapter on the ing and plain stem, 356 ff. The following quotations may help to illustrate the distinctions made.

Mrs. Conisbee, sympathetic in her crude way, would see that the invalid wanted for nothing.

Gissing, *The Odd Women* ch. 3.

Note the plainly perfective aspect of *see* here: equivalent to *take care*.

Does Mother imagine for one moment that she is going to darn all those stockings knotted upon the quilt like a coil of snakes? Mansfield, Bliss p. 141.

406. It should be noted that the stem *hear* is frequently used as a present-perfect¹⁾, denoting 'to have been informed'. It always takes a clause in this meaning. See 157.

1) Not to be mistaken for a *perfect present*, as *I have got* (see *Auxiliaries*).

I hear he is out of town.
I hear that he will start to-morrow.
I hear you made a speech yesterday.

407. The explanation suggested for the verbs of sensation and perception makes it possible to account for the fact that *to perceive*, *to notice*, etc. (198) take both the plain stem and the stem with *to*, usually the last: they may express sensation, like *to see* and *to hear*; but they usually express a perception, implying a perfective aspect, when a subordinate clause is necessary in spoken English, and literary English has the alternative with the stem with *to*. It may finally be observed that the literary construction, though not current in colloquial English, is not an arbitrary invention: if it were, writers would not be able to make the distinction we have tried to formulate, which is, of course, far too fine for practical application, and can be made only when it is done unconsciously.

We can also account now for the facts observed by van der Gaaf (*Englische Studien* 62, 409) with regard to *expect*. The verb can take an object-with-stem with *to* as well as a clause when it expresses an event that is foreseen (a). If it is a state that is foreseen we naturally use a clause, although the object-with-stem is perhaps not exclusively literary (b). If *expect* is to express will or wish the object-with-stem must naturally be used (c). It can also express 'to suppose, guess, imagine,' when it is construed with a clause, as usual in such cases (d).

- a. We hardly expected him to be successful.
We hardly expected that he would be successful.
- b. I don't expect this fine weather will continue.
I don't expect this fine weather to continue.
- c. Nobody expects you to make a martyr of yourself.
d. I expect he knows more about it.

408. We have seen that some verbs when forming a group with a stem with *to* are completely subordinate in meaning to the stem, and serve to modify it or to express some aspect of the action or occurrence (*to happen*, *to fail*, *to come*, etc.; see 221). They naturally take a different construction when expressing an independent meaning, as may be shown by the example of *to happen*.

It happened now and then that, on reaching the house
at Knightsbridge, I was informed that Mr... felt too
tired to rise. This concerned me little, for it meant no
deduction of fee. Gissing, Ryecroft.

409. The stem with *to* as an adjunct to adjectives expressing a feeling (*I am sorry to hear that*) has the same subject as the grammatical subject of the sentence. When this is not the case a clause is used: *I am sorry you can't come*.

A clause is also necessary, though the subject of the sentence may be the subject of the second verb, when the time must be expressed: *I am sorry I was not told this before*.

410. The same causes as are mentioned in the preceding section may prevent a stem from being used in an interrogative adjunct.

Martial knew when he should stop, *what he was doing*,
and how to do it with brevity and point.

Times Lit. 18/3, 20.

Here it would be impossible to substitute *what to be doing* for *what he was doing*.

411. Although *to bear* can take an object-with-stem, chiefly in literary English, it must be construed with a clause in the following cases, because the time must be expressed (*a*). In other cases the clause is not inevitable, perhaps, but certainly the most natural construction (*b*).

a. Himself in revolt against the institution of marriage, Edwin could not bear that Ingpen should attack it.

(The subordinate clause shows that E. wanted to *prevent* Ingpen from attacking it; the stem would suggest that Ingpen was doing it, and the ing expresses contemporaneous actions or occurrences).

Bennett, These Twain III ch. 17.

b. I could not bear that we should be only muddling on, and you so rich and thriving!

Hardy, Ironies (To Please his Wife ch. 2).

Mademoiselle could not bear that the gratitude and affection of a little child should be thus discouraged.

Mackenzie, Seven Ages of Woman ch. 2 p. 100.

412. The subordinate clauses in the following quotations are of an uncommon type, but need no comment. The use of *should* suggests that the clause is due to an element of *will* in the verb of the leading clause.

He liked that people under him should thrive, — and he liked them to know that they thrrove by his means.

Trollope, Dr. Wortle ch. 1.

Constance had been there all the time, but of course, though she heard the remembered voice, her maidenliness had not permitted that she should show herself to Mr. Scales. Bennett, Old W. T. I ch. 6 § 2.

He would have preferred that Darius should never have felt gratitude, or, at any rate, that he should never have shown it. He would have preferred that Darius should have accepted his help nonchalantly, grimly, thanklessly, as a right. id. Clayhanger III ch. 14 § 2.

413. A number of verbs can take a prepositional object-with-stem (*You may depend upon him to help you*) or a prepositional ing with a possessive (*depend upon his coming*), and take a subordinate clause as well (*You may depend upon it that what I say is true*). These constructions have also been illustrated in the sections on the pronoun *it*, because the clause makes this pronoun necessary. Professor Collinson, *Spoken English* p. 68, provides this sentence: *You can depend*

upon it he never has to preach to empty pews, with this alternative: *upon his never having to preach*. The latter is not really colloquial, of course.

We may also mention here the case of *to remember*, which takes an ing (simple or perfect: see 585 f.) or a perfect stem with *to*, but may also take a subordinate clause. The latter construction must be used when the verb refers to the future and is similar in meaning to 'consider.'

I remember his coming in to breakfast one day.

Walpole, Fort. III ch. 24 p. 253.

You ... must remember that a great charge has been given you ...

ib. p. 255.

414. In some cases a relative clause (*a*), or an adverb clause with a conjunction (*b*) have the same function as a construction with a verbal.

a. "My fool of a doctor told me to make my will," he said. "I hate a fellow *who tells you* to make your will ..." Galsworthy, Caravan p. 1.

b. I hate people *when they keep up* an ear-splitting chatter all the time, but I simply loathe them *when they whisper*. Punch's Almanack for 1931.

She said: "D'you mind *if I drive*, because I'm learning." Galsworthy, The Dark Flower I, ch. 11 p. 56.

415. After *to wish* a subordinate clause is used to express a wish that is supposed to be incapable of fulfilment, a stem in other cases.

I wish I knew what to do.

Even those who agree with them wish that they would not expose their cause to ridicule. Times Lit. 20/1, 16.

416. Owing to the small number of verbal forms in living English, the formal difference between a construction with a verbal and the one with a subordinate clause without a conjunction is frequently only just perceptible. Sometimes it can

only be inferred from a comparison with similar clauses containing a subject which takes a verbal *iz*; this is the case in the following sentence.

... the influence which we *suppose our minds have*
upon our bodies, and secondly the influence which we
take our bodies to have upon our minds. Laird p. 16.

Here it is only the comparison with *our mind has* that can prevent us taking *have* for a non-predicative use of the stem, in an object-with-plain stem construction.

AUXILIARIES

417. When a verb, whether used predicatively or not, forms a close syntactic group with a verbal (participle, ing or verb stem), the verbal generally serves as an adjunct or object to the other verbal form. But it sometimes happens that the relation of the two elements is reversed. Examples have been given in the chapter on the participle (56) as in *I got caught in a shower*; on the ing (88, 129), of which *the ice has stopped coming, the trunk had missed being sent on board* are typical specimens; and in the chapter on the stem with *to* (221), as in *he happened to come, we stood to lose*; also in the chapter on aspect (311 ff.), as in *the motor car is coming to be realized, he fell thinking*. A detailed treatment of each of these verbs must be left to the dictionary because they show no formal or syntactic peculiarities distinguishing them from other verbs.

There are a number of verbs and verbal groups, however, which share the position of the subordinate element of a verbal group that has just been illustrated with the verbs *to get, to stop, to happen, to miss, to come*, etc., but differ from them by having formal and syntactic peculiarities

which are connected with their semantic subordination in verbal groups.

418. With regard to the formal peculiarities referred to we may begin by taking *to dare* and *to need*. These can be used as independent verbs and do not differ in that case from other verbs. But they can also form a close group with a plain verb stem in negative sentences; in that case the third person does not take the suffix *-s*. Some other verbs, *can*, *may*, *shall*, and *will* never take the suffix *-s*; they have two forms only; the stem, which is exclusively used as a present tense, and a preterite.

419. The verbs mentioned in the preceding section, and a number of others, also show syntactic deviations. The most important of these is that they can take the negative adverb *not*, both in its strong-stressed form [nɒt] and weak-stressed enclitic [nt], without the verb *do*. Nor do they take this verb in cases when other verbs cannot be used without it (as in interrogative sentences, or sentences with inversion of subject and predicative verb generally). This applies to the verbs *to be*, *to have*, *do*, and the isolated forms *ought* and *used* [jʌst]. All these verbs are important as members of verbal groups; several of them, viz. those that never take the suffix *-s* and have two forms only (*can*, *may*, *shall*, *will*), are never used except in verbal groups. The preterites of some of them are only used as modal preterites, not as past tenses.

420. For the reasons enumerated it is necessary in grammar to treat these verbs separately; they are traditionally called *auxiliaries*, a term that may be retained, as long as the word is taken in the sense explained here, without any reference to its etymological origin, or to the grammatical ideas that led to its introduction.

No classification of the auxiliaries can be invented that does justice to all their peculiarities. Thus, *can* and *must*, considered from the point of view of their meaning are closely related to the verbs of independent use, but formally *can* and *must* differ more from them than *to have* or *to dare*. *To have* or *to do*, on the other hand, may be used as verbs of full meaning, and have the formal character of such verbs, but in some uses (as in *I've got it*, *What do you mean?*) they express no meaning at all and serve a purely grammatical function. For this reason the following classification is here proposed as one out of several possible ones; it will be justified in the retrospect at the end of the chapter (748 f.).

- (1) to be, to have; to do.
- (2) to dare, to need; to let.
- (3) ought, used.
- (4) can, may, must.
- (5) shall, will.

421. When a verb forms an element in two connected sentences, it is not necessarily repeated. This matter is fully dealt with in the third volume from a general point of view, but it may be convenient to treat it here with respect to the details that specially concern the auxiliaries. An example with a verb of full meaning may be prefixed: *You need not go to bed unless you want to*. The two verbs *need* and *want* form a group with the verbal *go*; the former requires the plain stem, the latter can take a stem with *to*. This explains the final *to*, which is naturally found with the auxiliaries taking the stem with *to* (*a*), although not invariably (*b*). The auxiliaries that take a plain stem naturally do not require the 'suspended' *to* (*c*). Repetition of the verbal is possible, too, and may serve the purpose of emphasis (*d*).

a. One day in the course of conversation Murray said he knew something of law, or at least he ought to.
Daily Mail.

"Go and smack his head."

"Am I to really?" Sinister Street p. 101.

Lady Agnes can marry any one she chooses to.
Hume, Red Money p. 150.

I was listening, oh intently! One had to, to make out what she was saying.

Arlen, Green Hat ch. 1 p. 8.

b. "You see," she said to me, "Gerald and I are the last Marches, and we ought to stand together. Don't you think so?"

"Yes, you ought," I said gravely.

Arlen, Green Hat ch. 1 p. 17.

They stand where they ought not.

Oxf. and Cambr. Rev. no. 16 p. 66.

c. I could tell you but I won't.

The wedding happened as perfectly as Pauline had imagined it would.

Mackenzie, Guy and Pauline p. 383.

If she would she could be useful.

Kipling, Day's Work.

If you can without fatigue, dear, do come down to dinner to-day. Gaskell, Wives III p. 258.

With a fluttering heart Virginia made what haste she could homewards. Gissing, Odd Women ch. 3.

d. She would not wear an apron in an age when aprons were almost essential to decency. No! She would not wear an apron, and there was an end of it¹⁾.

Bennett, Old W. T. I ch. 4 § 1 p. 77.

422. It is not necessary to give many examples of auxiliaries with a verbal participle or with a verbal ing, because they will be found in the sections on *to be*, in

1) The italics are in the original, to denote the pronunciation [nɒt] whereas in the first sentence it is enclitic [nt].

the groups with a participle usually called the passive (449), and those with the ing called the progressive (497); also in the groups of *to have* with a participle called the perfect (564).

Mr. C. could have said all he has much better if he had not wrapped it up in so many words.

Athenaeum, 21/12, 12.

From the age of Milton to that of Wesley, puritanism, to all appearance, had been struck out of art, as it had out of the brilliant superficial life of the world.

Cambridge Hist. of Lit. X, 1.

The public opinion of his country wanted to know why he did not go to office daily, as his father had before him.

Would that nature had done the same for the intrinsic outcastes of our ideal society! But, alas, she hasn't.

Huxley, Vulgarity p. 5.

423. The examples in the preceding sections show that it is not only the verbal that is expressed once only, but the verbal with its adjuncts. Occasionally the adjunct is used although the leading verbal is not repeated (*a*). It is also unusual for an auxiliary to be used without a verbal when this is not present in the first group either, and can only be inferred from it (*b*).

a. I don't think we could get a cart from Lymington to the cottage, although we can a horse perhaps.

Marryat, New Forest.

b. She kisses it, animation and all, caressing the rich black hair with a hand that seems thoughtful. A hand can¹⁾.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 11 p. 104.

424. The repetition of auxiliaries gives rise to some constructions that it may be instructive to illustrate more fully here, although the question is really one of sentence-

1) i. e. *be thoughtful*.

structure, and will be dealt with from a general point of view in the third volume. In several cases the sentences with the auxiliary repeated have the character of appended clauses¹⁾.

425. Both the auxiliary and the subject of a **Confirmative Questions** preceding statement are repeated in the form of an appended interrogative sentence, so that the two sentences form one, serving to invite the person addressed to express his agreement with the statement. Either the question or the statement is negative, never both. It should be remembered that such words as *hardly*, *scarcely*, *only* are considered to make a sentence negative.

The types are:

- (1) John can do it, cannot he?
- (2) John cannot do it, can he?

You had rather a disturbed night, did not you?²⁾?
Cassell's Magazine of Fiction.

"We are not a critical audience, are we, Mr. Walsingham?" Sidgwick, Severins p. 221.

He need not go there, need he?

"I told you down the Embankment," Michael shouted through the trap³⁾.

"I cannot go down the Embankment before I gets there, can I, sir?" the cabman answered reproachfully.
Sinister Street p. 837.

"Well, of course," Lord Lippington said seriously,
"here in the house we hardly want it, do we?"
Cotes, Cinderella ch. 19.

We only played there for a few minutes, did we, Lucy?

1) When there is no auxiliary the verb *to do* is used. It is convenient to include this case. See 621.

2) Note the auxiliary.

3) i. e. in the roof of the cab.

Sympathetic Questions **426.** When both statement and question are positive (*a*) or both negative (*b*), we have a construction that is almost identical in form but differs considerably in meaning. It is not really interrogative but expresses the speaker's interest in the statement. The construction may express a friendly interest or surprise; it may also be ironical. These feelings are shown by the context and, chiefly, by the intonation.

The construction differs from the one discussed in 425 in that the statement is made on the ground of the words or the attitude of the person addressed.

The types are:

- (1) John can do it, can he?
- (2) John cannot do it, can't he?
- a.* So you are back from Norway, are you? — Yes.
Sweet, Element. no. 71.

"I thought it too good to be true when Edwin heard it from Mr. Biffen..." "Oh, Biffen told you, did he?"
Gissing, New Grub Street ch. 6.

"Any boy would love his grandfather," continued Lord Fauntleroy, "especially one that has been as kind to him as you have been."

Another queer gleam came into the old nobleman's eyes. "Oh!" he said, "I have been kind to you, have I?" "Yes," answered Lord Fauntleroy brightly.

Burnett, Lord F. Gruno ed. p. 97.

"Why," said Fauntleroy, "she has been thinking about me all the morning, and I have been thinking about her."

"Oh!" said the Earl, "You have, have you? Ring the bell!" ib. p. 119¹⁾.

"You are acquainted with Miss Jane Fairfax, sir, are you?" said Mr. Woodhouse, always the last to make his way in conversation.

Jane Austen, Emma, end of ch. 23.

1) Note that no answer is expected.

b. "Oh, oh ! The bishop wouldn't like it — wouldn't he?"
 Trollope, *Framley* p. 23.

(Casual angler who has left the packing of impedimenta to boy) "Haven't seen no rod, haven't you? What the deuce do you think I was going to catch fish with then?"
Punch.

427. The appended question may also be addressed to oneself (*a*). We have essentially the same construction when the question is asked by another person than the one who makes the statement (*b*).

a. So they had taken his book, had they?
Walpole, Fortitude II ch. 8 p. 229.

b. "Oh!" said Cedric, "that's like the President."
 "Is it?" said Mr. Havisham.

Little Lord, p. 34 (also *ib.* p. 36, 151).
 "The bishop, for instance, must attend the House."
 "Must he?" asked Mrs. Grantley, as though she were not at all well informed with reference to this branch of a bishop's business. Trollope, *Framley Parsonage*, p. 168 (*ib.* p. 157).

"You have been wonderfully good to him."
 "Have I?" The faint colour rose to her cheek.

Crawford, *Tale of a Lonely Parish*, p. 73.
 "Darling boy, it's a fairy tale."

"Is it?" he said doubtfully.
 Compton Mackenzie, *Sinister Street*, p. 18.
 "You are trying to fidget me into a passion." "Am I?" said Mrs. Gresham, standing opposite to a big bowl... Trollope, *Framley P.*, p. 369.

"Now, I like this kind of thing, once in a way."
 "Do you?" said Frank, in a tone that was almost savage.
 Trollope, *Dr. Thorne, Everyman Series*, p. 211.

"You — you're only doing that to frighten me," stammered Miss Spencer, in a low, quavering voice.
 "Am I?" Nella replied, as firmly as he could.
Bennett, Babylon p. 83.

"You didn't see the other arm at the station, doctor?"
she said.

"Didn't I?"

"I was asking."

"Well, no. Now I come to think of it, I don't think
I did. We'll have a look now, anyhow.

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 3 p. 18.

428. Sometimes we find the order of a declarative sentence (*a*). In negative sentences there is regularly inversion (*b*). See vol. 3 on *word-order*.

a. Baron. Nay, Sir, we think him a little reserved.
Duke. You do, now? Hope, *Swaen* I p. 28.

"I even know a girl who lives in a flat."

She sat up in surprise. "You do?"

"I do," he assured her.

Wharton, *House of Mirth* p. 4 f.

b. "Perhaps they wouldn't be earls if they knew any better," said Cedric, feeling some vague sympathy for their unhappy condition.

"Wouldn't they!" said Mr. Hobbs. "They just glory in it. It's in 'em. They're a bad lot."

Burnett, *Little Lord*.

Compare the following two quotations from Bennett's *Grand Babylon Hotel*:

"It won't do any good."

"Won't it?" repeated Racksole, with a sudden flash.
ch. II.

"I happened to see Jules to-day."

"You did!" Racksole remarked with much calmness.
"Where?" ch. 21.

429. In both constructions (425 f.) a second person with *will* is generally repeated by *will* (*a*), but also by *shall* (*b*). In the first person it is also possible to use both *will we* and *shall we* in the enclitic question, but only *shall I* (*c.*)

a. "You'll tell me when there is any news, dear boy, won't you?" "Indeed I will. Or suppose I tell you now — Nolly has told about me and Janey Spencer — isn't it? 1)" "That's the ticket..."

Morgan, Vance ch. 28 p. 268 f.

b. You will like to play, shan't you?

Eliot, Mill on the Floss VI ch. 7.

"You will not be afraid to stop in this house", she asked contemptuously, "and go on bathing Miss Hale's forehead, shall you? I shall not be ten minutes away."

Gaskell, North and South ch. 22.

c. Some day we too will come, will we not, to greet the sun on May-Day? Barbara.

"By Gad, what a glorious night," sighed Guy, staring out at the orchard. "We'll take a walk, shall we?"

Sinister Street p. 765.

We will be ready in a quarter-of-an-hour, shall we not, Mrs. Proudie? Trollope, Framley ch. 6.

"Did you count the number of seconds between the lightning and the thunder?"

"No."

"We will next time, shall we?"

We would love to keep you, wouldn't we, Graham? Cotes, Cinderella ch. 13.

I'll call the boys, shall I?

Compare also the following.

"You'll be just a counter in the game, no doubt."

"Shall I? Not much! I play my own games. You ought to know that." Phillpotts, Forest on the Hill ch. 2.

"I shall speak to him first."

"Oh no, you won't."

"Shan't I? You'll see." Bennett, Leonora ch. 7.

1) Here *isn't it* seems to be used for *hasn't he*. But *isn't it* may refer to the speaker's thought: *that is in your mind*. In Eleanor Glyn, *When the Hour Came* (p. 10) we find: "You think so too, isn't it?" But the speaker is specially called "a foreigner."

Appended Statements **430.** The repetition of auxiliary and subject may serve to emphasize the speaker's conviction of the truth of the statement. In the two preceding constructions the subject is repeated in the form of a pronoun; in this one the real subject is generally announced by a personal pronoun in the first statement, and expressed fully in the form of a noun in the second statement.

It was all ranged upon a slope, was this old garden . . .
Temple Thurston, Thirteen p. 66.

He hated being "messed about," did Gerald.
Arlen, Green Hat ch. 2 p. 54.

He could arouse all that was worst in a man, could Hilary.
ib. ch. 3 p. 99.

My father had a kind heart, and there was snow on the ground that night. He could not turn her off, and she's done well by us, has Betsy. English Rev. 1914.

She's a dear, good woman, is my aunt de Courcy.
Trollope, Dr. Thorne, p. 192.

It is very gay, is Lacville on Sunday night.

Mrs. Belloc-Lowndes, Chink in the Armour (Tauchnitz), p. 34.

He's interested is George in all beasts and birds.
Vachell, Spragge's Canyon, p. 81.

Never saved a cent, did old Don Juan. ib. p. 16 v.

They're keen, are ghosts. New Numbers I, 14.

"He will have his joke, will the doctor!" Constance smiled, in a brighter world.

Bennett, Old W. Tale IV ch. 3 § 2.

431. As to the order of words in appended statements, the noun-subject generally has end-position, as the preceding section has shown. When the repeated subject is a pronoun it precedes the verb (*a*); the same order is occasionally found in the case of noun-subjects (*b*).

a. You look full of sense, you do.
Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 18.

Come on surprisingly, you have. Vachell, Quinneys'.

b. She takes hold of housework better than I do,
Hannah does. Wiggin, Rebecca ch. 1.

Thinks things out for herself, Barbara does — surprises
you sometimes. Cotes, Cinderella ch. 22.

Well, she thinks the world of you, Sarah does.

Bennett, Hilda Lessways.

She is very sympathetic, Daphne is.

Rose Macaulay, Keeping up Appearances p. 38.

432. The construction is sometimes found in combination with an emphatic *do*.

He never did care for the river, did Montmorency.
Jerome, Three Men in a Boat ch. 1.

433. The three cases discussed above are sometimes found in consecutive sentences.

"What's this I hear about Roger?" said Mr. Gibson, plunging at once into the subject. "Aha! so you've heard, have you? It's famous, isn't it? He's a boy to be proud of, is old Roger..." Gaskell, Wives II p. 210.

434. We also find repetition of auxiliary and subject to confirm a preceding statement made by another person. Positive statements are referred to by *so* (*a*); in the case of negative ones the confirmatory sentence opens with *no more* (*b*).

a. "Why, we've forgotten to call on Miss Mitchell!"
"So we have. But it doesn't much matter; she would be sure to say she wasn't at home."

Sweet, Element. no. 70.

"Someone told me you went to France with your brother." "So I did." ib. no. 73.

"But they told me that Lord Brock had sent for him yesterday."

"So he did, and Harold was with him backwards and forwards all the day."

Trollope, Framley Parsonage, p. 170.

b. "Harriet, my dear, you've gone too far — we had no right to pry into Mr. Preston's private affairs."

"No more I had," said Lady Harriet.

Gaskell, Wives III p. 134.

"He thought you had no wish to see him."

"No more I have." White, Mr. John Strood ch. 8.

435. *So* and *no more* serve to connect the two sentences; they are, naturally, not used when the two sentences are quite independent.

"He seems to be a very mature little fellow," Mr. H. said to the mother.

"I think he is, in some things," she answered.

Little Lord F., p. 30.

"I cannot do it." "I am sure you cannot."

436. Both statements may be by the same person.

She fancied, as she passed on, that she heard her mother address him as "Fenwick," without the "Mr." So she did. de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 12 p. 107.

Denials 437. Another use of the repetition of the auxiliary and subject is to deny a preceding statement. In this case no connecting *so* or *no more* is used.

"And now you are angry with me," said Miss D.

"No, I am not."

"Oh, but you are..."

Trollope, Framley Parsonage, p. 368.

"One of us has got a sunstroke," he exclaimed.

"No," returned Cedric, "we have not."

Little Lord F., p. 18.

Cedric thought she had come to buy some sugar, perhaps, but she had not. ib. p. 13.

Mrs. C. Oh, I shall faint.

Bertha. No, you won't. But Martha will very soon if she continues to be fed at this preposterous rate.

Van Doorn, Dramatic Conversations, p. 49.

Answers to Disjunctive Questions **438.** It is hardly necessary to say that the auxiliary is also repeated in the answer to a disjunctive question.

"Do you think you could do it?" he asked gruffly.
"I *think* I could," said Cedric.

Burnett, Fauntleroy p. 87.

"Do I look a great object?"

"Well, you do rather." Sweet, Element. no. 62.

New Subject **439.** Repetition of a preceding auxiliary is also used to apply the preceding predicate to a new subject. In the case of positive sentences there is an introductory *so* (*a*); in the case of negative sentences we find *no more*, *neither*, *nor*.

In this construction the subject has end-position and is naturally strong-stressed, whereas in all the preceding constructions it is the repeated auxiliary that has the strongest stress.

"I feel as if I had had enough walking for one day."

"So do I." Sweet, Element. no. 70,

"I am quite satisfied," said Juley quietly.

"Of course you are," Rose snubbed her cousin. "So would anybody be." Meredith, Harrington ch. 16.

"An earl is — is a very important person," he began.

"So is a president!" put in Ceddie.

Little Lord F., p. 34.

As there are anomalies in every history, so there is a history for every anomaly. Our constitution is full of such, so are our time-honoured customs, our laws and liturgy, our territorial divisions, our language written and spoken.

Stubbs, Lectures p. 1.

Mrs. Proudie was an imperious woman; but then so also was Lady Lufton. Trollope, Framley P. ch. 7.

He has no ground of complaint; neither have I.

Mr. Asquith, reported Times 29/7, 15.

"I can't make out how it has come about." "No more can I." Gaskell, Wives III p. 151.

"I will try to speak to him myself if you like, but I don't feel that much good will come of it." "No more do I, Doctor, to say the truth."

Morgan, Vance ch. 23.

Compare also the following example without any auxiliary.

"I never thought," she exclaimed, "that the Westminister House of Commons could be so cheerful." "Nor I." Cotes, Cinderella ch. 11.

To Be

440. The verb *to be*, like the other verbs in the first two groups of 420, is to be looked upon as an auxiliary in some of its uses only. There is no division of the meanings of the word into two classes, however, but a number of meanings that can be arranged so as to present a scale leading from complete independence to complete meaninglessness. Although the detailed presentation of these meanings is the domain of the dictionary, it will be necessary here to outline them so as to make the use of *to be* as a member of various groups intelligible.

441. *To be* is used in various meanings which differ considerably from each other, but are best understood when we look upon them as different aspects of the fundamental meaning: *to exist* (*a*). When considered perfectively this leads to the meaning *to happen* (*b*). When taken locally both meanings may express something like *to move*, considered duratively (*c*) or perfectly (*d*).

- a.* Tyrants and sycophants have been and are.
There are photographs and photographs. NED.
- b.* The flower-show was last week. NED.
- c.* There was a Russian girl, too, who *was* about the shop uneasily on this day.

Walpole, Fortitude II ch. 3 p. 177.

d. So long as he *was* home by six o'clock he could spend the day where he pleased.

Walpole, Fort. I ch. 3 p. 26.

As we rode down-town Vance was thoughtful. We *were* nearly to the Criminal Courts building before he spoke.

S. S. Van Dine, The Canary Murder Case ch. 18, p. 198.

Have you *been* to the Crystal Palace? NED.

She had *been* into every room of the tiny house.

Sovereign Magaz. Aug. 1922.

The hopeless sound of the chubby one's crying caused Peter suddenly to go red hot somewhere inside his chest, and like a bullet from a gun he *was* into the middle of the circle.

Walpole, Fort. I ch. 5 p. 52.

442. It is more difficult to define the meaning of *to be* when used with an adverb or prepositional group, to state *where* or *how* a person or thing is.

Your book is in your study.

"How is Mrs. Smith?" — "Very well, thank you."

443. The verb has no meaning at all, but serves a grammatical function only in sentences like the following, when it forms a group with an adjective, a noun or an adverb.

The work is very satisfactory.

He is a clever workman.

The stove is out.

444. The distinctions here made are clearer and greater than the reality: thus *to be* and *to exist* are not actual synonyms, although they are sometimes related in meaning. The difference is shown phonetically; for *to be* is often weak-stressed even when it may be defined as meaning 'to exist' or something like it.

ðə wəz wans ə :litl boi; hɪj woznt ə ;big :boi, etc.

Sweet, Pr. of Spoken English p. 48.

445. *To be* is also used in purely verbal groups, with a participle, an ing, or with a stem with *to*.

The construction with a participle must be distinguished according as the verb is transitive or intransitive. The latter construction will be treated in the sections on *to have* with the participle of intransitive verbs because it can best be treated by comparing it with the similar use of *to have*.

We shall here treat of the other three constructions.

446. It has been shown (56ff.) that the participles of transitive verbs can form a close group with verbs of little independent meaning to express an occurrence or an action. The most important verb giving rise to such a purely verbal group is *to be*. It is usual to call this verbal group the *passive*. The traditional term may be useful as long as it is understood that it is not identical with the passive of such languages as Latin or Sanskrit, and that the term is only applied to the verbal group when it expresses an occurrence or an action. Thus, we have a group-passive in *The book is sold for 5 s.*, but when a second-hand bookseller informs a would-be purchaser that a book in the catalogue *is sold*, the group expresses a state or condition and is not a passive. It is a curious and naturally accidental result of this that the same verbal group comes to express two opposite, and mutually exclusive, meanings. The three sentences that follow also illustrate the participle expressing a state, not as a member of a group-passive.

King Constantine is given not more than 48 hours in which to reply. Times W. 12/1, 1917.

Constance and he were not estranged, but the relations between them were in a state of feverish excitation.

Bennett, Old Wives Tale II ch. 5 § 3 p. 226.

In Mr. Nevinson's war pictures, now to be seen at the Leicester Gallery, there is expressed a modern sense of war as an abnormal occupation.

Times Lit. 5/10, 16.

In the first of these sentences the change into *has been given* would produce a passive. A comparison with languages which distinguish the two meanings formally would be instructive; Dutch and German would both serve this end.

447. The group-passive is possible with verbs that can take a noun-object (or pronoun-object) in the first place. But it is not limited to these, and is also found of verbs that take other kinds of complements. We can distinguish:

- (1) verbs that can take an object with stem (plain or with *to*).
- (2) verbs that can take an object with *ing*.
- (3) verbs with a complementary stem with *to*.
- (4) verbs with an object clause.

The classification just made should not lead the reader to imagine that the group-passive is a kind of derivative form from the constructions that have been mentioned. We shall see that the passive is sometimes freely used when a corresponding 'active' form does not exist, and other cases when the corresponding active is purely literary. The quotations in the following sections will be partly arranged so as to distinguish the cases when the group-passive expresses an occurrence (*a*) from those when it denotes an action (*b*).

448. Verbs that can be construed with a noun- or pronoun-object are called transitive. We may distinguish the following varieties:

1. with one plain object.
2. with one prepositional object.
3. with two plain objects.

4. with one plain object and a prepositional group.
5. with one plain object and a predicative adjunct.

One Object **449.** Verbs construed with a noun- or pro-noun-object can be used in the passive. This may be called the *direct* passive; see 461.

a. Violets and primroses *have been gathered* this Christmas at Barcombe, Mills, Sussex. Times W, 5/1, 17.

She spoke rapidly, looking about the room and seldom hearing what *was said* to her.

Hichens, Ambition ch. 7, p. 71.

If anyone who was present at the wedding was still constructing theories about his identity¹⁾ — whether he had divorced his wife, *was divorced* himself or was dead — certainly none of those theories connected themselves with the present bridegroom.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 16 p. 156.

b. At this time of day it all seems ancient and distant enough; the book *has been praised, blamed, lifted up, hurled down* a thousand times, and has finally been discovered to be a book of promise, of natural talent, with a great deal of crudity and melodrama and a little beauty. Walpole, Fortitude III ch. 2 p. 245.

450. The distinction between the passive of occurrence and of action does not prevent the construction from being used in both meanings in the same sentence. This shows that the distinction, though doubtless real, is of no importance for the structure of the sentence.

The youngsters were stretching themselves with repletion before the dishes *had been emptied* (*a*). Thanks *were offered* (*b*) and then my friend of the spectacles got up on two forms to deliver an address. Hall Caine, Drink.

In the last example of the preceding section the group *has been discovered* illustrates case *a*.

1) i. e. the identity of the bride's first husband.

451. We have essentially the same construction with the introductory *there*. It is found when the subject is so weighty that it has end-position. The construction generally expresses an occurrence.

a. On January 1, 1847, there was published in a yellow wrapper, now famous, the first number of *Vanity Fair*.
Whibley, Thackeray p. 90.

There has just been published as a Parliamentary paper the Convention between this country and the United States respecting the Protection, Preservation and Propagation of Food Fishes in the Waters contiguous to the United States and Canada.

Athen. 11/6, 1908.

A turn in the road, and there is wasted to me a faint perfume, that of meadow-sweet.

Gissing, Henry Ryecroft.

On the death of an acquaintance, more his friend than he imagined, the wayworn man of letters learnt with astonishment, that there was bequeathed to him a life annuity of three hundred pounds. ib. Preface.

b. From the Norwegian, Danish, and Icelandic historians, and from some parts of the old Northern poetry, there may be formed a different idea about the character and domestic manners of the men who made themselves so unpleasant in their visits to the English and neighbouring coast.
Ker, Mediæval English Lit.

452. The construction with the introductory *there* is also used to give the subject mid-position, between the verb and the participle. The result is that noun and verb (participle) remain a closely connected group which serves as a predicate expressing an occurrence; the noun is so closely incorporated with the verb that the latter may be best interpreted as used intransitively. See 490.

There was very little tea eaten that evening.
Montgomery, Misunderstood.

And still there *had been hardly a word spoken* between him and Lily. Trollope, Last Chron. ch. 45 II p. 13.

There *were nine V. C.'s gained* in that one fight.
Times Lit. 14/9, 16.

There *was no hockey played* within the precincts.
Wells, Harman ch. 4 § 2 p. 75.

There *is a great deal of nonsense talked* about this matter in England and other countries.

Times Lit. 21/12, 17.

453. We have probably the same construction in the following sentence, although the participle might be interpreted as an attributive adjunct, parallel to *of earlier date*.

M. le Maistre remarks that it was St. Louis's benevolence which prompted the lords to free them; there *are in fact a large number of manumissions given* in his reign: but there are also some of earlier date.

Coulton, Medieval Village ch. 13 p. 161.

454. When the object-character of the adjunct to the active verb is not perfectly clear, or when the construction is not usual, in other words when the verb is not clearly transitive, the passive construction is apt to produce the impression of being somewhat peculiar.

a. Gay, who spent most of his time with the Queensberrys, faded out when Pope was little more than forty, and *was survived* but three years by the beloved Arbuthnot. Times Lit. 21/8, 19.

'What I meant to tell you was only this... that nobody has got me yet as a sweetheart, instead of my having a dozen as my aunt said; I hate to be thought men's property in that way, though possibly I shall *be had* some day.' Hardy, Madding Crowd ch. 4 p. 32.

b. Should he try to repeat his offence, he will *be stood* in the corner and compelled to wear tartan pyjamas.
Punch.

But he (i. e. an M. P.) has not only himself to cater for. There are visitors, especially those who come from

a distance, to whom tea on the Terrace is almost essential. There are others who must *be dined* or who require to *be offered coffee* or other refreshments.

J. M. Hogge, M. P. in Daily Mail.

He was sitting in the one sitting-room on the left side of the passage as the house *was entered*.

Trollope, Last Chron. ch. 4 p. 26.

Once or twice he stayed to dinner, and the long dining-room with the sea-grey wall-paper and curtains of the strawberry-thief design *was always entered* with a particular contentment of spirit.

Mackenzie, Guy and Pauline p. 55.

Though personality pervades style and cannot *be escaped*, the first sin against style as against good manners is to obtrude or exploit personality.

Sir A. Q.-Couch, Art of Writing.

Men's hearts had not changed, but they had learned, through the events of that awful year, to submit as cheerfully as might be to the doom which could not *be escaped*. Freeman, Herrig-Förster, Brit.

Authors II p. 604/1.

455. It may be doubtful whether we have a passive or a participle expressing a state in the following sentence. The present writer prefers the latter interpretation.

... yet there was in his attitude just as much incredulity mingled with disdain of useless learning as would preserve his dignity without jeopardizing the financial compliment his services were owed.

Mackenzie, Guy and Pauline p. 9.

456. For the reason given in 454, cognate objects are infrequently found as subjects of a passive construction, especially when verb and cognate object are the same word. Both of the following examples express an activity, not an occurrence.

Enough that peaceful lives had been lived there; children had been born...

Benson, Thread of Gold, p. 31.

Or if we wish, not for problems of any kind, but just for a picture of life as it was lived a hundred and fifty years ago, there is nothing like Boswell's pages. Bailey, Johnson.

457. When a verb forms a close group with an accompanying noun there is generally no passive at all. Such groups are *to feel panic*, *to give a glance*, etc.; see the chapter on the *Simple Sentence* in volume 3.

Occasionally a noun that has the character of an adverb adjunct rather than of an object can be made the subject of a group-passive.

Knitted woollen goods for outer wear are much wanted, and overtime *is still being worked* in this section.

Times Trade & Eng. S. 1930.

458. Verbs that can be construed with a Prepositional Object prepositional object can be used in the passive with the noun as a grammatical subject.

a. As Pansy was driven home, feeling under herself for the first time the elasticity of a perfect carriage, she experimented with her posture. "The carriage is not to be sat in in the usual way," she said.

J. L. Allen, Mettle of the Pasture, p. 278.

Meanwhile the press-cutting agency to which he subscribed kept him well-informed as to how his speeches were written about in Tory, Liberal and Socialist newspapers from Aberdeen to South Wales.

Patterson, Compton p. 313.

b. The doctor was sent for. The bed has been rolled on. The carpet has been trodden on. The proposal was approved of.

Every man likes to flirt with a pretty girl, and every pretty girl likes to be flirted with.

The beginnings of Hungarian speech must be sought for in the language itself. Athenaeum.

Her room was empty, the bed had not been slept in; the window was open, and the bird had flown.

W. Irving, Sketch-Book.

For Knossos was lived in from Stone Age days.

Burrows, Discoveries in Crete, p. 6.

The scene of their exploits was arrived at by way of
Gibraltar. Athenaeum.

Now, to be properly enjoyed, a walking-tour should
be gone upon alone. R. L. Stevenson.

A sick man had been prayed for twice daily in his
cathedral during several weeks. Hole, Mem. p. 147.

And then Edward Clayton had to be explained to
and Joey and I only just got in time for dinner.

Vance ch. 10.

When Dolly had been kissed and whispered to they
gave Peter to his father to hold.

Wells, Joan and Peter ch. 1.

"So an adversary may be reckoned with, a book quoted
from, a house *lived in*, a divinity *sworn by*, a man *run through*, or *run over*,¹⁾ or *stared at*, or *despaired of*, or
talked about, or *looked after*. A doctrine may be fought
against. An argument may be insisted on, or *lost sight of*,
and in newspaper English an opportunity may be availed of.
Not all sorts of such combinations can be made, for
nothing is so freakish as language in new formations
by analogy, but many have become good English, and
the number is increasing."

Greenough and Kittredge, Words and
their Ways p. 190 f.

So it didn't matter much that his mother counter-
manded his proposal that bed should *be gone to*, on the
ground that it was so late now that she wouldn't be
able to sleep a wink.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 28 p. 306.

And now a fresh succession of struggles (viz. between
a young cuckoo and a young robin in the same nest)
began, the whole process being just the same as when
the egg *was struggled with*.

Hudson, Hampshire Days ch. 1 p. 19.

1) In *to run over*, and probably in *to run through* we must rather look
upon *over* and *through* as adverbs. See 460.

459. In the following passives of activity the agent is expressed by an adjunct with *by*.

The scientific tactics and economic use of forces, of which the battle of Trafalgar is a supreme example, are not so easily come by, and were achieved by Nelson after years of thought, and work, and discussion.

Athenaeum.

This unconquered country was the Welsh kingdom of Strathclyde, and was dwelt in by the Celtic race.

Stopford Brooke, Pr. Eng. Lit. p. 61.

460. The verbs that form a compound with an adverb can be used in the same way.

This practice has long been done away with.

The tragedy is led up to by a pathetic love-story.

I imagined the questions that would be asked me, and was considering the proper answers to make to them, when my morbid dreams were suddenly broken in on by Martha Rod. Walter de la Mare, Riddle p. 29.

461. Verbs construed with two objects can generally have two passive constructions, either object being possible as the grammatical subject of a group-passive, which is accordingly called the *direct* or the *indirect* passive (449). When the personal object of the active is the grammatical subject of a passive group it must be accompanied by its 'direct object.' It will be shown below that it is not really the verb alone that is used in the participle construction, but the verb with its direct object, which form an inseparable semantic group. For the noun in such a passive the name 'retained object' has been proposed by Sweet¹⁾.

1) In the direct passive the indirect object can be retained if it is a personal pronoun; in the case of nouns a construction with *to* is substituted. Observe that the direct passive is also possible without mentioning the person indirectly affected.

It has seemed more practical in this section to arrange the examples without considering the distinction of the passive of occurrence and of activity, and to give examples of retained objects in the form of nouns only and of those pronouns that do not distinguish a nominative and an oblique form.

The Lord Mayor was accorded a mixed reception.
Times W.

A part of the glebe was grazed in common by the villagers, who *were advanced* money for the purchase of cows, and strips were personally reserved for laying down the hay. *Spectator* 14/1, 1928.

The Countess gave him the recognition that is occasionally afforded the family tutor.

Meredith, *Harrington* ch. 46 p. 463.

India is allotted real representation at that Conference.
Times W. 5/1, 17.

By the first Morrill Act, 1862, lands were allotted to the several States. Times Ed. S. 9/9, 20.

As a critic Johnson must be allowed a high place.
Mair, *Eng. Lit.* p. 143.

This opportunity has not yet been allowed them.
Times W. 20/2, 14.

More space was necessary, and the sea-green dining-room was awarded shelves. *Sinister Street* p. 777.

If you are asked the question, What is religion? you may answer in terms hostile or friendly to religion itself; you can hardly answer in terms that are indifferent.
Times Lit. 22/7, 20.

The end of the struggle is nearly always that the public is conceded everything. Times Lit. 27/11, 14.

Well, we guess, that she wants some independent part in life which she can herself play, and she takes that part on the stage, because she is denied it elsewhere.
Athenaeum, 8/2, 13 p. 173/2.

Has there ever been a time when Greek poetry or Greek sculpture has been denied its glory?

Bailey, *Question of Taste* p. 11.

Details that the sceptic would fasten on are denied him.
Times Lit. 19/10, 16.

Annette was brought home from Edinburgh at the end of the term and was found a situation with an iron-master's family named Fender.

Gilbert Cannan, *Round the Corner*. p. 63.

His failing health showed itself before the end of the novel, but had the latter half equalled the first, . . . then the book could not have been gainsaid its rightful place in the very front rank of the novels.

Conan Doyle, *Magic Door*, p. 35 f.

Since prosperity came upon the younger brother, and Amos had been given a stool in the office, the former had insisted on Amos's living with him in first-class lodgings. Patterson, *Stephen Compton*, p. 92.

The Sixth Form was not only excused from chastisement; it was given the right to chastise. The younger children, scourged both by Dr. Arnold and by the elder children, were given every opportunity of acquiring the simplicity, sobriety, and humbleness of mind, which are the best ornaments of youth.

Lytton Strachey, *Em. Vict.* p. 186.

The Act did not create a single unit. It did not do what Lord Durham recommended. His scheme was never given a chance. Times Lit. 2/10, 19.

This book was given me in 1885, on the occasion of my marriage, by Frank and Margaret Pattison.

Prof. Bywater.

Some have done bravely and well the work which was given them to do. Hole, *Mem.* p. 174.

He was also granted a monopoly of the news.

Camb. Hist. Eng. Lit. IX, 2.

To the first two or three states admitted after the adoption of the Constitution of the United States several hundred thousand acres were granted by special Act.

Times Ed. S. 9/9, 20.

In both islands they (i. e. the Moors) were guaranteed the use of their native customs and religion.

Davis, *Med. Europe* p. 195.

Michael was handed a thin sky-blue book labelled *Office of the B. V. M.* Sinister Street p. 224.

Well, X was left a legacy.

G. Street, Eng. Rev. 1913.

She does not comprehend the joys of scholarship in her employment of Latinisms. It will be pardoned to her by those who perceive the profound piece of feminine discernment which precedes it.

Meredith, Harrington, ch. 27 p. 288.

Annette came up, kissed Serge, and was promised her finished portrait for a wedding-present.

Cannan, Corner, p. 255.

Mrs. Despard was refused a hearing at a suffragist meeting at Thornton Heath Public Hall on Saturday evening.

Times, Weekly ed. Febr. 28, 1913,

p. 176/3.

They ask for £ 2 and also for an additional war bonus of $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent; and we do not see how it can be refused them at this time of day.

Times 31/8, 1918.

The parochial historian will find that he has been saved weeks of labour.

Times Lit. 19/10, 16.

All this unnecessary labour would be saved to them.

Jerome, Three Men on the Bummel.

Then he followed the squire down to the churchyard, and was shown the church as well as the view of the house.

Trollope, Last Chron. ch. 28, p. 253.

That unnatural and barely imaginable we and the world have been spared.

Observer, 5/2, 22.

I was spared the deep anxieties of a married man.

Wells, Country p. 161.

“However,” she went on, “all that is not worth dwelling on. My boy was spared to me.”

W. B. Maxwell, Gabrielle p. 112.

All this is taught to every school-child in Holland.

Graphic, 23/3, 1907.

We are told their folktales and songs.

Times Lit. 3/12, 14.

The sad tidings were not told to Grace till the evening.

Trollope, Last Chron. ch. 9 p. 75.

462. When the retained object is a personal pronoun of the first or third person the oblique forms are used, as in any other object. Both of the following quotations illustrate the passive of activity.

M. Bordeaux has done his best to explain the man and his writings to us. We are shown him as a devoted son, as student, professor, lecturer.

Times Lit. 2/9, 20.

But now it is generally admitted that boys do not pick up things unless they are taught them¹).

Benson in *Journal of English Studies* I, 152.

463. The equality of the retained object to the direct object is shown by the groups in the following sentences. The last two may prove at the same time that the grammatical subject that corresponds to an indirect object in the active construction is in every way a subject like the one corresponding to the direct object. The first and last example illustrate the passive of activity, the second is a passive of occurrence, unless it is interpreted as an example of a participle expressing condition, not a passive at all.

The result was that Steve was offered and took the leadership. Patterson, Compton p. 203.

Saving a certain technical excellence, both they and their works are owed only the scantiest reverence.

James Stephens in Eng. Rev. April 1914, p. 84.

Most servants and workers were slaves who were paid not money but in kind.

Wells, Short History p. 100.

4) The subject *they* must be taken to refer to the boys.

464. Some verbs, especially those that are only occasionally used with two objects, nearly exclusively make the direct object the subject of a passive construction. Such are *to bring, do, pass, send, write*. All the passives in the following sentences express activity.

The book was brought to him.

Kind messages were sent me by (Turkish) women who would have perished rather than be seen of me.

M. Pickthall, quoted Athenaeum, 28/3, p. 442/3.

They are sensible of the good or evil that is done them. Times Lit. 25/5, 22.

But what harm has been done you?

Trollope, Last Chron. ch. 58.

A letter must be written to the inspector.

Verbs with a plain object and a prepositional adjunct 465. When verbs are construed with a plain object and a noun or pronoun with a preposition they can generally be used in the passive only by making the plain object the subject, even though the prepositional group often has the character of a prepositional object, as in the case of *dedicate to, send for, devote to*.

a. His life was devoted to the abolition of slavery.

b. He dedicated the book to his father. The book was dedicated by him to his father.

We sent the servant for the doctor. The servant was sent for the doctor.

He aimed the chestnut at me. The chestnut was aimed at me.

For further details the reader is referred to the notes at the end of the book.

His question was asked of his wife as he came into her bedroom on his return.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 38 p. 414.

466. Sometimes a verb with a plain object followed by a prepositional group forms a semantic unit, e. g. *to*

pay attention to, to take care of, to lose sight of. In this case the noun in the prepositional group can also be the subject of a passive construction.

These group-compounds are also phonetically distinguished from other verbs with an object and a prepositional group, for the verb is subordinated in stress to the noun: *to pay attention to, to lose sight of, to set fire to.* See also the sections on the absence of the Article.

a. And my gentleman had baffled him, he could not quite tell how; but he had been got the better of.

Meredith, Harrington ch. 6 p. 54.

Unfortunately, works of fine reticence and quality are apt to be smothered and lost sight of in the popular stream.

Nation, 12/7, 13.

b. When the powder in the barrel of a gun is set fire to, it explodes, and drives out the bullet with great force.

Sweet, Element, p. 64.

Substantially the possibility of trying press offences by special tribunals was put an end to by the abolition of the Star Chamber in 1641.

Dicey, Const. Lect. VI p. 265.

I was a good deal taken notice of by Mrs. Bretton.

Brontë, Villette ch. 1.

There he was taken care of at once by Beatrice.

Sidgwick, Severins p. 34.

Other forms of the dance are had recourse to on special occasions, and there are also various kinds of dance plays.

Henderson, The Ballad in Lit. p. 5.

If it wasn't for papa, Julius Bradshaw would simply be said not-at-home to, and have to leave a card and go.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 18 p. 176.

467. In the verbal groups of the preceding section the prepositional noun is really an object to the group formed by the verb with what looks like an object; in other words, the construction is essentially identical with the case treated in 458.

It follows that when the phonetic unity of these groups is broken by adjuncts to the noun-object, the noun in the prepositional group is generally not used as the subject of a passive construction, unless the adjunct to the noun is very general (such as *no*, *any*). The passives in the following examples express activity.

It asserted a principle which might be appealed to in future debates in the House of Commons, but it asserted no principle which could be taken any notice of by a Judge in any Court of Law.

Freeman, Growth p. 155.

On p. 10 we have the sentences *He would be made an end of*, *This must be kept tight hold of*. These, although allowable in conversation, would be monstrosities in literature. H. T. Price, Beiblatt zur Anglia 24, 156.

468. The construction is quite exceptional when the group has no phonetic or semantic unity at all.

I ought to note that even before he went to the University he had already achieved a certain amount of publication, and was predicted great things of by a small circle of admirers. Morgan, Vance ch. 18 p. 178.

Wee Willie Winkie had once been read to, out of a big, blue book, the history of the Prince of Goblins.
Kipling.

The unusual effect of the construction in the last sentence is due to the position of the object at the end; not, as in the other cases, immediately after the verb, so that it can at least formally constitute a group with it. As in 467 the passives all express activity.

469. If the object in a group-compound *can* be separated from its verb by an adjective (which proves that it does not form an indivisible whole with the verb), the object can sometimes also be the subject of a passive sentence, according to 465.

Such verbal phrases are *to take care of*, *to pay attention to*, for we can say *to take good care of*, *to pay careful attention to*. But a double construction is not possible for *to lose sight of*; hardly for *to keep hold of* (see 467).

- a. No attention was paid to my words.
- b. In the account of its mineral riches mention might have been made of the theory, largely accepted by men of science, that the age of iron began in Noricum.

Athenaeum.

So much has recently been said about jay-walking and the particular circumstances of the road, that sight seems almost to have been lost of the elementary fact that the one great danger factor is just simply *speed*.

Letter to the Editor, Nation 25/I, 1930.

Verbs with an Object and Predicative Adjunct **470.** When a verb is construed with a plain or prepositional object and a predicative adjunct the participle can also become a member of a group-passive, with the noun of the object as a grammatical subject.

Then the great organ pealed out again, the Marshal bade the heralds proclaim me, and Rudolf the Fifth *was crowned* king, of which imposing ceremony an excellent picture hangs now in my dining-room. Hope, Zenda.

I won't be *called* a fool by you.

He *was found* very ill.

It is possible for this construction to occur with a verb that can take two objects, as in the first example of 462.

Verbs with an Object and ing or Stem with to **471.** Closely related to the construction in the preceding section is the use of the predicative participle of verbs that can take an object with *ing* or an object with stem with *to*. These kind of constructions have been treated when dealing with the *ing* (113) and with the stem

with *to* (290), as it seemed more convenient not to separate them from the other constructions with these verbal forms. It is sufficient, therefore, simply to refer to these sections here, reminding the reader of the constructions by quoting some typical instances: *it can be seen gradually asserting itself; In 1636 the letter-carriers had been prevented from going to London by the plague* (Mem. Verney Fam. I 225); *His master was prohibited as a delinquent from keeping his school* (ib. III 356); *he was heard to say ...; he was ordered to go away; the shutters were announced to be up.*

Verbs with a
complementary Stem
with **to** or with an
Object Clause

472. When dealing with the stem with *to* we have shown that the stem with *to* is never quite identical with a noun-object, and have proposed the term complementary adjunct. A verb that can take such a stem as *he attempted to reorganize the company*, can be used as a part of a group-passive: *it was attempted to reorganize the company* (*a*). Similarly these verbs can take this construction when accompanied by a clause (*b*). The last case (*c*) is a very rare variety of those in 461.

a. Hence the need for such a congress, which it is hoped to hold every five years. Times Lit. 12/1, 22.

b. It was hoped he was getting on pretty well.

Flora Masson, The Brontës, p. 53.

At Lado it was learned that the poachers had split up, and that each section had made a 14 days' tour.

Daily News, 21/9, 12.

It may be wondered whether a century or two hence a student of University life to-day, if he is willing to admit that it was vigorous — and he is at least as likely to consider its energy feverish — will declare that it was sane.

Athenaeum.

And here it may be remarked that the company of the entomologist is often quite as distasteful to me...

Hudson, Hampshire Days ch. 6 p. 113.

c. Evan was whispered that he was to join them.
 Meredith, Harrington ch. 5, p. 46.

473. Direct speech in subordination to such a passive is exclusively literary. The passive sentence may be prefixed (*a*) or may be an appended clause (*b*).

a. To every man it is decreed: thou shalt live alone.
 Gissing, Ryecroft ch. 20.

It is asked him: "Wilt thou wed this Fate, and give up all behind thee?"
 Meredith, Feverel ch. 29.

Compare also Beauchamp's Career ch. 36 p. 334 (Mr. Culbrett, etc.) and p. 378; Harrington ch. 10 p. 103.

b. 'The cap'n said I might come in without any fuss',
 was answered in a lad's pleasant voice.
 Hardy, Native II ch. 4 p. 147.

474. The construction of 472*a* is sometimes an alternative to the personal construction of verbs construed with an object and stem. Thus we find *it was permitted to me to read them*, although it is more usual to say *I was permitted to read them*. See 292.

These volumes belonged to my father, and before I was old enough to read them with understanding, it was often permitted me, as a treat, to take down one of them from the bookcase, and reverently to turn the leaves.
 Gissing, Ryecroft.

As a schoolboy it had been definitely forbidden to him to go out at night.

Bennett, Clayhanger I ch. 9 § 2.

May it be allowed one to wonder why your correspondents speak of Tennyson's rhyme only as "repetition" when both English and French have technical terms for this form of rhyme, — "perfect rhyme" and "rime riche"?

John Sargeaunt in Times Lit. 1/3, 1918.

Non-Predicative Passive 475. In all the sentences illustrating the group-passive quoted until now the participle was accompanied by a form of *to be* that served as a predicate. Some sentences contain the plain stem with the participle, but it has been shown in treating of the plain stem that in a group with an auxiliary the plain stem is essentially predicative (355). For this reason such cases have been included in the preceding sections.

We have the same group-passive with non-predicative verbal forms, however, i. e. with *being* and the stem *to be*. It has seemed convenient to treat of the group with *being* in the chapter on the verbal ing (see 128 ff on the complex ing). An examination of the examples in those sections will show that in most of them the passive expresses activity, far less often an occurrence. A discussion of the relations of the complex ing and the simple form will be found in 133 ff.

The group-passive consisting of the stem *to be* with a participle has not been treated in the chapter on the use of the stem with *to*, because these constructions give rise to some uses that can only be discussed after the other uses of the passive have been dealt with.

476. The passive with *to be* is used in all the functions of the simple stem with *to*. The following sentences illustrate it as an adjunct to verbs (*a*), including the case that the verb is only formally the leading element (*b*).

a. He hopes to be appointed.

The true beauty always includes its proper utility. Many a dainty French chair of the eighteenth century fails in that, because it is obviously made to be looked at and chairs ought to be made to be sat upon. Times Lit. 10/8, 16.

The author appears to have been accorded quite exceptional opportunities of acquiring information.

Quoted ib. 20/4, 17.

They expected to be submitted to, and obeyed.

Gaskell, *Wives I* ch. I p. 10.

b. When it is remembered that our submarines are now navigated in the open seas for thousands of miles, the meaning of that record cannot *fail to be seen*.

Times, Weekly ed.

The discovery will enable science to determine the conditions in which the infection takes place, and it is expected that preventive measures will *be able to be taken*.

Everyman, 3/1, 13.

In public school education, as in everything else, a new system is needed. Enquiry *wants to be made*, not of the persons who run the show; not even of those who have taken good places, but of the rank and file, who naturally never get their voices heard.

English Illustr. Magaz., June, 1912.

477. The group-passive with *to be* is also used in adjuncts to nouns and adjectives. It is hardly necessary to point out that we find the passive of verbs taking an indirect or prepositional as well as a direct object, for the non-predicative verb does not really differ from the predicative verb in these respects, and it can hardly be expected to do so, because, as the reader will remember, it is in reality the meaning of the participle itself that makes all the constructions possible; see 45 ff.

Thus ever about her rooms she moved on this mournful occupation until the last thing had been disposed of as either to be sent back or to be destroyed¹⁾.

Allen, Mistletoe.

The last eleven to be rescued from the flooded mine had some terrible experiences during their twelve hours' imprisonment.

Daily News.

There was nothing to be done but to possess our souls in patience.

1) The passive groups are predicative adjuncts here.

There was not a house to be seen except a solitary farmhouse. Sweet, Spoken Engl. p. 56.

She agreed that a large house in the West End was a worthy aim, and one to be kept in mind.

Pett Ridge, Garland ch. 13.

But for all that, "The Harbor" is a book to be read.
Ill. London News 14/8, 15.

The result is a finished piece of work, to be commended to the study of those who, guided by Teutonic models, deem lumbering involutions and a muddy terminology the certain concomitants of profundity. Times Lit. 30/10, 15.

In the great peril to be feared from Mr. Scales, Constance's heart had been put aside as a thing that could wait. Bennett, Old W. Tale I ch. 7 § 2.

She had no retainers to be maintained because they were retainers. Trollope, Last Chron. ch. 52 (vol. II, 90).

An important question to be determined is, in what sense is *Absalom and Achitophel* a 'satire'?

Verrall, Dryden p. 58.

Easy to please and be pleased.

Vachell, Quinneys' p. 175.

The temptation was too strong to be resisted.

Sweet, Spoken Engl. p. 59.

Little dainty tiny poems, with not too much in them, not too difficult to be comprehended by children of that good age. Jack, Essays III 37.

And plain to be heard in the early quiet was the sound of the creek in the paddock running over the brown stones... Mansfield, Bliss p. 19.

The print was almost too small to be read by the light of a single candle...

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 44 p. 482.

Well — next, don't you think it very dignified of Mr. Bradshaw to be able to be condescended to and explained in corners under people's breaths and not to show it? ib. ch. 15 p. 153.

He went to call indeed; but he was perhaps relieved to be denied admittance. Stevenson, Jekyll p. 60.

478. The passive group is used when the meaning distinctly requires it. In many cases, however, the verb can be understood as the predicate to an agent as well as to the object affected or effected by the action; in such cases the simple form is the usual one, both in adjuncts to nouns (*a*) and to adjectives (*b*). The last sentence of those under *a* is specially instructive because it shows that in two stems to one noun the agents may be different persons. In the cases quoted under *b* the stem is an adjunct of purpose or result. Other relations are expressed in the cases under *c*.

a. His garments had been made for him, that was all that could be said. That is something to know.
de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 1 p. 1.

But come — do let us go at once. There is no time to lose —. Walpole, *Fortitude II* ch. 8 p. 229.

It was two miles across the common to Stephen's farm and it took the boy nearly an hour, because the ground was uneven and there were walls to climb, . . .
ib. I ch. 3 p. 30.

According to him it was not a place to visit by night.
Sweet, *Spoken Engl.* p. 51.

"Now you're sneering, Drummond," said Rose, "for you know there's no mystery to clear up."

Meredith, *Harrington* ch. 17 p. 175.

My hair does not want much brushing; there is not much of it to brush. Sweet, *Element.* no. 53.

But there are serious difficulties yet to overcome before we reach the full standard of production of which the country is capable. Times 29/7, 15.

In all Bursley there could have been few drawing-rooms to compare with Constance's.

Bennett, *Old W. Tale IV* ch. 2 § 1.

She had long felt that he would lose much of his nervous instability and preoccupation if he had a wife to look after and to look after him.

Stephen McKenna, *Reluctant Lover* ch. 8 p. 120.

b. Yes, that was all very pleasant to think of.

Walpole, Fort. I ch. 4 p. 39.

The secret of Busby's success and unique reputation is not hard to explain. Annals of Westminster p. 113.

The opportunity was too good to throw away.

Galsworthy, Freelands, ch. 8.

The roads and open spaces in woods in October and November are delightful to walk in when they are richly variegated floors composed of small pieces, . . .

Hudson, Hampshire Days ch. 3 p. 63.

c. There are many things worse than fighting; and there are many wounds and injuries which people inflict on each other worse than bodily wounds and injuries — only they are not so plain to see. Times Lit. 29/7, 15.

His face was so ghastly to see that I grew alarmed both for his life and reason.

Stevenson, Dr. Jekyll, p. 102.

479. When we find *to do* and *to be done* in the following sentences, both as adjuncts to a noun, it must be considered that in the first it is an intransitive, in the second a transitive verb, so that the contradiction is only an apparent one.

No — you couldn't help it, Stephen — it's nothing to do with you. Walpole, Fort. II ch. 7 p. 218.

There was silence again — a silence now of incredulity and amazement. But there was nothing to be done; if any one claimed a fight, by all the rules and traditions of Dawson's he must have it.

Walpole, Fort. I ch. 5 p. 57.

480. It may also be remarked that the simple form is not possible when the agent must be expressed. Thus, although we can say *It's not a place to visit at night*, we must say *It's not a place to be visited by young children*.

In other cases the simple stem may be traditional. We say *There is nothing to do* (compare 479) and *There isn't much to see*, but in similar cases the complex stem is at

least quite as common: *There is much to be explained, accounted for.*

The simple stem is naturally also possible when it qualifies the adjective preceding the noun to which it serves as an adjunct.

This is no easy work to translate.

Times Lit. 6/7, 17.

481. The passive group of *to be* with a participle can occur in the plain object with stem constructions, frequently with the verbs of will and wish (*a*), less often with the *verba sentiendi et declarandi* (*b*); also in the prepositional object and stem (*c*). The object with plain passive stem occurs with *to let* only, at least in spoken English; in literary English the construction is occasionally found with *to bid* (*d*).

a. Julius Caesar had permitted worship to be offered to himself. Goodspeed, Hist. p. 368.

Lady Malloring had caused Tryst to be warned that he could not marry his deceased wife's sister and continue to remain on the estate.

Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 34 p. 424.

(The question was) how far men and women should try to rule the lives of others instead of trying to rule their own, and how far those others should allow their lives to be so ruled? id. ib.

Inglesant ordered some refreshment to be given to the messenger, and his own horses to be got out.

Shorthouse, Inglesant ch. 11 p. 121.

But he could, and he did, play the Company's game, as it meant that game to be played.

Times Lit. 21/4, 21.

An official return issued yesterday enables a comparison to be made between the number of emigrants to Canada and Australia during the seven months ending July 31 this year as against the corresponding period of last year.

Daily Mail, 23/10, 12.

Use of Mahomedan and Saracenic enables the epithet Arab to be avoided. Times Lit. 5/6, 24 p. 350/2.

b. If a stranger heard him talk about leather he would imagine him to have been bred a tanner.

c. The Liberals are urgently pressing for a decision to be made. Times W. 2/2, 17.

The time for this problem to be solved has not yet come.

d. "Let me be promised," she seemed to say, "that I will never have any trouble or sorrow with my son and I will love him devotedly."

Walpole, Fort. III ch. 8 p. 319.

In his busiest days Alfred found time to learn the old songs of his race by heart, and bade them be taught in the palace-school. Green, Short Hist. p. 51.

482. A comparison of the sentences in the preceding section with those of section 60 shows that a number of verbs can take an object with *to be* and a participle, or with the participle only: *ordered the play to be stopped*, and *ordered the play stopped*. It seems the best place here to compare the two constructions.

We may observe in the first place that the same twofold construction (with *to be* and without) is found with a number of verbs that take an object with a predicative noun or adjective; in the former case we speak of an object with stem, and as this construction has been sufficiently illustrated (470), it will be possible to restrict ourselves to some examples of the second construction only, which is also treated in the third volume in the chapter on the simple sentence.

It is curious and interesting to find our younger men of letters actively concerned with the present condition of literary criticism. Times Lit. 13/5, 20.

Amid laughter and exclamations Hamilton confessed himself the man who had guessed Latin to be the cause of Miss Current's remaining an old maid.

Meredith, Harrington ch. 16 p. 167.

In Fallowfield, among impertinent young men, Evan's pride proclaimed him a tailor. ib. ch. 16 p. 162.

As to my works I know them faulty.

id. quoted Sturge-Henderson ch. 1 p. 1.

When we know ourselves fools, we are already something better. ib.

483. Of the verbs of 60 it is those mentioned under 3 (verbs of will) and 4 (verbs of liking and preference) that can take both constructions, whereas the verbs under 1 (verbs of sensation and perception) and 2 (verbs of experience) cannot.

The two questions that naturally arise are:

- (1) What is the difference, if any, between the two constructions in the case of verbs that can take either?
- (2) Why do the verbs of 60, 1 and 2 take the object with participle only, and not the participle with *to be*?

It will be clear to the reader that the answer to the first question can be satisfactory only if it at the same time makes it possible to answer the second.

484. If we compare two sentences like *I wish the thing to be done* and *I wish the thing done*, it is clear that there is some difference. In the former case (*to be done*) the action is looked upon with respect to its beginning in the future, in the second (*done*) the action is rather looked upon as completed. In other words, the group with *to be* is *inchoative*, the simple participle is *terminative*. Compare also:

No, I don't want Alan hurt — I want everyone in the world to be happy, happy — as I am.

Galsworthy, Frelands ch. 9.

The distinction between the two constructions is a very delicate one, and it cannot be expected that even the most careful writers will always make it. For it must be remembered that the simple participle (without *to be*) is the usual construction in spoken English in those cases when it is

possible. This may account for the construction in the following sentences.

But I want you to know all I can tell you. I do not want any groundless excuses made for me.

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 12 p. 110.

This and other similes occur over and over again in these essays and lectures. I let them stand because I want these useful formulae learned by heart.

Vernon Lee, *Handling of Words* p. 41 footnote.

When the durative aspect must be expressed the complexing can be used: *She foresaw inquiries being made*; see 131.

485. The explanation suggested in the preceding section, if correct, must incline us to look upon aspect as the cause of the necessity to use the simple participle with *to hear*, etc. and the verbs expressing 'experience.' There is no difficulty in this, for these verbs naturally require a form expressing the durative aspect, or a neutral form, not a distinctly perfective form of the verb.

One more point must be considered: the verbs of causing (*get, make, have*) never take *to be* with participle, although the closely connected verbs of will do. The reason is evidently that the verbs of causing cannot take a form that is inchoative.

Observe that *to let*, and the literary *bid*, never take the simple participle, but only the plain stem *be* with participle, as shown in 481 d. This peculiarity may be the result of tradition.

486. We have dealt with the group of *to be* and a participle as an adjunct to verbs, nouns, and adjectives; also as a member of an object with stem construction. Like the simple stem with *to*, the group with the participle can also be used as a subject, and as a predicate in a sentence expressing identity, but neither of these constructions is frequent.

Meanwhile to be waited upon was an attention that had other charms than novelty. Pett Ridge, Garland.

On such constructions as are exemplified by *The story is not to be credited*, see below.

Double Passive 487. We sometimes find a sentence with a passive group for its predicate which is qualified by another passive group; this *double passive* is the result of the general fact that the participle of a transitive verb can be so used, but the resulting constructions are somewhat complicated.

We can distinguish two groups:

- (a) the verbs that take a stem with *to* as a complementary adjunct;
- (b) the verbs that take an object and stem with *to*.

An example of the first class is *to attempt*. According to 472 we have *It was attempted to form a new plan*. But *to form* is also transitive, and we can consequently say: *A new plan was attempted to be formed*.

The second group is very similar. We find: *They allowed no building to be erected*, in accordance with 481. Consequently we can also have this type of passive: *No building was allowed to be erected*.

a. If a distinction is attempted to be drawn between the indigent and those in comfortable circumstances . . .

Rev. of Rev. Jan. 1899.

Newcastle takes its name from the castle which was begun to be rebuilt by Rufus.

Lit. World 3/2, 1899¹⁾.

It was whispered about that the first cause of the outbreak (a fire) was a bottle of turpentine which was being

1) Both this and the preceding quotation are borrowed from an article in *Engl. Studien* by C. Stoffel.

used or proposed to be used, in the pickling of an unpopular boy by his fellows. De Morgan, Vance ch. 12.

There had been a rumour that Claydon House was threatened to be burnt. Mem. Verney II p. 205.

Then, with a dryly-closing throat he recalled the faint blush in which Frank was arranged to be met at the station. D. C. Jones, Everlasting Search I ch. 7 p. 56.

What is hoped to be gained by the repetition of these tirades against Liberalism just now I cannot conceive.

Fowler, Dict. of Modern Usage s. v. *hope*.

b. Records of proceedings were ordered to be kept.

Constit. Essays p. 305.

New legislation is believed to be contemplated.

Jenks, Short Hist. of English Law p. 388.

I have to search the house. Especially since a light was seen burning in this room, and after my men came round the house was observed to be put out.

Temple Thurston, Jane Carroll p. 213.

It (the ms.) is believed to be based upon a Chronicle now lost which had its origin at Winchester¹⁾.

Plummer, Saxon Chron. I p. X.

The book was declared to be scandalous... and it was ordered to be publicly burned by the executioner.

Lytton Strachey, Books and Characters p. 130.

488. When we compare the sentences under *a* with those arranged under *b* in the preceding section it is easier to see the similarity than the difference. Indeed, we may say that the two groups are identical in character: in both a participle forms a close syntactic group with another participle, the two being connected by *to be*; both participles, too, are used in a distinctly verbal sense, expressing an occurrence or an action and not a state or condition. No difference seems to exist at all, unless we compare the 'corresponding' active constructions.

1) Perhaps *based* should rather be interpreted as a verbal adjective.

It may be asked, however, if they really correspond, and what is meant by the term. It is usual to consider the passive as a kind of secondary form of the verb, a derivative form dependent upon the 'active'. But we have already seen that this treatment, though supported by tradition and convenience, does not really permit us to state the facts completely or correctly. In dealing with the passive group with a stem we have found some cases that had no corresponding active at all: *He is said to have objected to the proposal.*

Use of the Passive **489.** In the preceding sections an attempt has been made to give a fairly complete description of all the constructions that the predicative participle with *to be* as a purely verbal group (446) gives rise to. In accordance with tradition the cases have been classified on the basis of the construction taken by the verb in its 'active' use. It has been pointed out more than once, however, that what is remarkable about the constructions is not so much the combination of the participle with the verb *to be* as the meaning of the participle itself. On the other hand, it must be stated that the combination of the participle with *to be* does make a difference: thus it is rare for the participle to be used attributively to a personal noun when the verb can take two objects (*labourers refused a minimum wage*: see 51) and yet this construction is perfectly usual when the participle is grouped with *to be* (see 461), i. e. when the participle is used predicatively. The group with *to be* is essentially like a combination of *to be* with an adjective, as is shown by the following case, where two participles are coordinated with one predicative form between them (*a*) and especially by the grouping of a verbal participle with an adjective (*b*). See 499.

a. Hence when a bad man dies, who in his lifetime

dabbled in black magic or was believed to be possessed by an evil spirit, he is buried outside the village and magical fences are *erected* and other defensive measures *adopted* to prevent his ghost from returning and troubling the inhabitants.

Times Lit. 25/5, 22.

b. His eyes were watching for the moment when the accounts should be *finished* and Stephen *free*.

Walpole, *Fortitude* I ch 3 § 2 p. 31.

490. The preceding illustrations have shown many cases when the passive construction has for its grammatical subject the noun that would be the object in the active construction. It must be pointed out, however, that this relation between the passive and the active does not necessarily exist.

When a verb takes a complementary stem with *to* (*it was attempted to form a plan*) there is no such relation, for there is no real object, and the stem forms part of the verbal group in the predicate in both constructions. And when a verb can take two objects the passive construction is possible only when one of the objects is retained in the predicate: such a sentence as *I was told the news* contains a passive of *tell the news*, not of *tell* only¹⁾. And even when a verb has one object only it is possible for the object to remain part of the predicate, as in the sentences with introductory *there* in 452. (There was no word spoken, and he closed the door behind him. Walpole, *Fortitude* I ch. 6 § 3 p. 75).

Verbs that can take no object or complementary stem do not occur in the passive. The following sentence, though written by the author of a book on style for English

1) It might be said, therefore, that the personal objects of such verbs can become the subject of a passive construction when it is understood as the direct object i.e. the person directly affected by the action expressed by the verb *with the direct object*.

schools, does not illustrate genuine British English, but may be due to the Irish origin of the writer.

But the dialects, especially the country dialects, must not go. Of them it shall be spoken later.

Hardress O'Grady, Mod. Lang. Teaching 8, 106.

491. An examination of the many quotations illustrating the passive will show the student that nearly all the verbs express an activity. We may say indeed that the construction enables a verb of activity to express an occurrence. This does not exhaust the functions of the passive, for as we have already pointed out, the passive sometimes expresses activity. In that case the difference between the active and the passive is that the latter does not require the agent to be mentioned. The passive construction is important because English has no pronoun that can be generally used to express an indefinite personal subject; the pronoun *one* does not correspond to such indefinites as Dutch *men*, German *man*, and French *on*. The following sentence is a case in point.

Much has been written in praise of books and the pleasure of reading has been celebrated by mighty pens.
Times Lit. 2/9, 20.

492. The predicative participle of some verbs is almost invariably used to express an occurrence, so that the construction enables the transitive verb to serve as an intransitive. Such predicative participles are *to be blown out*, *to be frozen*, *overset*, *drowned*. Other verbs are only occasionally used in this way.

The candle was blown out when I entered.

They used to say that I should be frozen to death one night.

He was killed on the 15th of March in an unimportant skirmish.

When several well-known men have died in succession in an Ekoi village, suspicion *is* naturally *aroused* that they are the victims of black magic, and some friendless woman may be pounced upon as the probable culprit.

Lowie, Primitive Religion p. 33.

The power of the drug had not been always equally displayed. Once, very early in my career, it had totally failed me.

Stevenson, Dr. Jekyll.

Sometimes a passive of occurrence is avoided because it might suggest a passive of activity. In such a case the verb may be used intransitively without any formal indication of the change.

The boats will hold something over 300 people. Therefore the men must drown, said Lord Holmhurst.

Haggard, Meeson's Will.

We let a thousand seamen drown without an effort to save them, while, if twenty people are burnt in a playhouse, we tear our hair, and legislate . . .

The steersman was left alone in charge of the boat when the vessel blew up.

493. In the introduction to the sections on the passive (446) it has been mentioned that the term is applied only to the groups expressing occurrence or activity, not to the participle denoting a state. This distinction becomes very slight, though it is still real, when the passive of occurrence is to be taken in its iterative aspect, as in the following case.

He (Squire Cass) was only one among several landed parishioners, but he alone *was honoured* with the title of Squire . . .

Eliot, Silas Marner ch. 3.

494. The passive of activity, though primarily used when no agent is required to be mentioned, is also found with the agent expressed by means of an adjunct with *by*. It is not necessary to add examples to those given in the

preceding sections. In this case the value of the passive lies in the possibility of making the person or thing affected by the action the grammatical subject, and it is this case that has caused the impression that the passive primarily serves this purpose, and must be considered as a derivative form from the active verb.

An adjunct with *by* does not necessarily express an agent. It may be an adjunct of cause to a passive of occurrence, as in the first two sentences here (*a*); it may occur, too, with a participle expressing a state (*b*).

a. The discussion was given another turn by the entrance of Mr. Godbold himself.

Mackenzie, Guy and Pauline p. 10.

Virginia's thin, timid voice and weak manner were thrown into painful contrast by Miss Nunn's personality.

Gissing, The Odd Women ch. 3.

b. All was surrounded by old oak woods, and the river was close by.

Hudson, Hampshire Days ch. 1 p. 6.

495. In the great majority of instances quoted in the preceding sections the passive was used of a verb expressing activity; this is the result of the fact that these passives are far more common than the passives of verbs expressing a sensation. But the verbs of sensation do occur in the passive, as shown by the following examples.

Then she would clasp herself close — afraid to stretch out her arms, lest she should be seen.

Galsworthy, Dark Flower II ch. 25 p. 182.

What always astonishes me about young people is the way they think they're not seen — poor dears.

ib. II ch. 3 p. 115.

Now that their voices and the cawings of the rooks had ceased there was nothing heard but the dry rustle of the leaves.

ib. I ch. 12 p. 66.

The national sentiment was also seen in the young drama. Sefton Delmer, Eng. Lit. p. 48.

She knew that she did not wish that little procession passing through the courtyard to be seen by the man of the red car. C. N. and A. M. Williamson, The Wedding Day p. 26.

No doubt he'll be heard from in good time.

J. Erskine, Galahad II ch. 5 p. 127.

It will be seen, therefore, how rash it is to quote Pater's words in about 1130 as if they were conclusive for monastic practice in general.

Coulton, Med. Village ch. 12 p. 148.

Summary 496. It may be found useful if we try to sum up our considerations with regard to the function of the passive in English sentence-structure as briefly as possible.

The participle with *to be*, or another verb of little independent meaning (56), may express condition or a more verbal meaning (occurrence or activity). It is in the latter function that the term passive is applied to it. This passive, though not essentially differing from the participle in attributive use, is more freely employed than the attributive participle, and makes it possible:

- (1) for a verb of activity to express an occurrence.
- (2) for a verb of activity or sensation to be used without the mention of an agent.
- (3) for a verb of activity or sensation to express the person or thing affected by it in the form of the grammatical subject.

The Progressive

497. The verb *to be* not only forms a close syntactic group with the participle, but also with an ing. As in the former case the group with the ing is related to

combinations with other verbs, as illustrated in 84: *sat waiting*, *stood looking*. But the group of *to be* with the ing, like the one with the participle, is syntactically very important for the very reason that the apparently leading verb has no meaning of its own, so that the second element of the group, here the ing, decides the character of the group. And the ing nowhere shows its character with regard to aspect so clearly as when used predicatively with *to be*. This has led to a special name for this group: the *progressive*.

498. We speak of a progressive only when the ing has a verbal meaning. Thus there is no progressive in *The book is amusing enough*; *The statement may not be incorrect, but it is certainly misleading*; *Three leaves of the manuscript are still missing*; *He writes with that personal air of conviction that is so telling* (*Everyman*, 20/12 1912). The following ings may be similarly used as predicative adjectives: *improving*, *ailing*, *disappointing*, *edifying*, *forthcoming*, *obliging*, *willing*, etc. But many of these words can express a verbal meaning as well; we have progressives in the following sentences.

I have been amusing the baby.

I am not misleading you.

She has been telling me her secrets.

I don't know what made me come back to London.
I'm missing so much fun. *Sinister Street*, p. 756.

499. With regard to the character of the progressive as a syntactic group it may be added that it is not a close unit, so that the ing can be coordinated with other predicative words (*a*), or separated from the predicative verb in other ways (*b*). See 489.

a. We were clear of the harbour and steering with a fine breeze for the English coast.

Poor Jack (a boys' book).

We were free and making good headway. ib.

The town's murmur was dying, the house lights were dead already. Galsworthy, Frelands ch. 17.

(He) was allowed to be present as a very great favour because it was Christmas Eve and snowing so hard.

Walpole, Fort. I ch. 1 p. 5.

b. Nobody asked where you were going, with whom going, or how going.

Galsworthy, Frelands ch. 26 p. 328.

500. The progressive is used of verbs denoting an action or occurrence, to express that this is thought of as being in progress, continuous, during a certain limited time; it always implies incompletion.

If the progressive occurs of a verb usually expressing a state, like *to be*, it will be found to denote or refer to an action or occurrence. The progressive with an adverb expressing unlimited time will be specially dealt with.

The progressive occurs both predicatively and in the non-predicative forms of *to be*; these uses will be separately treated because the effect of the construction sometimes depends upon this.

The progressive can also be combined with a passive group (*is being done*); this does not make a difference in the meaning, so that it will be sufficient to add examples in the proper places.

The progressive does not affect the time of the action or occurrence, so that it will be possible to illustrate the cases in the order suggested by the forms of the verb.

501. The present progressive is frequently used with reference to present time.

Margaret. Sidney, my dear, be good!

Sidney. I am being good. I'm returning hint for
hint. Dane, Bill of Div. in Brit. Pl. p. 649 f.

"Selina!" Jasmine gasped. "You're making the most dreadful accusation. You really ought to careful."

"That's what I am being. Careful..."

Mackenzie, Rich Rel. ch. 9 p. 229.

The Tasmanians are gone, the Bushmen, the Australians, the Pygmies seem to be going, the Eskimos are being kept from extinction by stringent measures.

Fleure, Races of Mankind p. 17.

Therefore it is that this country has made, is making, and is prepared to make sacrifices of blood and treasure unparalleled in its history. A. Balfour.

Even where Departments are most free from these defects, we find that there are important features in which the organisation falls short of a standard which is becoming progressively recognised as the foundation of efficient action.

Report of the Machinery of Government Committee p. 4.

A plain categorical proposition is becoming less and less credible to average minds. Or at least the slovenly willingness to hold two directly contradictory propositions at one and the same time is becoming more and more common¹⁾. Morley, Compromise p. 18.

"Perhaps I'm being too inquisitive?" she suggested gently. This is only another way of getting one's question answered. Temple Thurston, City I ch. 8.

She tapped with her foot on the ground. "You are being too ridiculous," she said.

Cannan, Corner ch. 19.

The steps that have been taken are a beginning and a promise that this business is being handled at last in a systematic way. Times W. 12/1, 17.

Lord Derby protested with great earnestness that all in his power has been done, is being done, and will be done to secure the fulfilment of the pledge.

Times 16/3, 16.

In the following quotation the present *are talking* refers to a time that is actually past but connected with the

1) Note the addition of *progressively, less and less, more and more*.

present time in the mind of the speaker, whereas the preterite *were talking* is used to express the absence of such a connection.

(When Mrs. Mansfield entered the room, "there was silence.")

"You are talking, or you were talking, of something or somebody interesting," she said at once, looking round her at the three occupants of the room.

Hichens, Ambition ch. 1 p. 3.

The same idea seems to be differently expressed by the following construction.

The democratic method is not infallible, as we are in process of discovering. Observer, 30/10, 20.

502. The present progressive is also used to refer to future time, both in main clauses (*a*) and in adverb clauses (*b*).

a. "What are you doing next Sunday?"

"We're going out to Epping together."

"Ah — and the Sunday after that?"

"He works every other Sunday."

Temple Thurston, Thirteen III p. 49 t.

"I'm sleeping here to-night, you know, for the first time," said Guy. He had tried all the way back not to make this announcement, but the sight of his own gateway destroyed his reserve.

Mackenzie, Guy and Pauline p. 11.

"Hallo, Marsham! Are you dining here to-night?" asked the newcomer. — "No, I was just going out."

Compton Mackenzie, Old Men of the Sea
ch. 1 p. 9 f.

Come to-morrow evening, won't you, after dinner? Heath is dining with me¹⁾. Hichens, Ambition ch. 1.

The girl's coming out in three days' time. They're giving a ball¹⁾ in Portland Place for her. Nobody knows much about her. Walpole, Duchess of Wrexham ch. 1 § 3.

1) The time is indicated in the preceding sentence.

The English Association is holding its annual general meeting on January 12th and 13th at University College, Gower Street. Some interesting papers and discussions are promised, and a large company of men of letters will be in attendance. Mr. A. C. Bradley is delivering the address from the chair, Prof. Boas, a vice-president of the Association, is to open an interesting conference on 'The Teaching of English Composition' on Saturday. Dr. W. H. D. Rouse is to read a short paper. On Friday the members and their friends are dining together at the Holborn Restaurant. *Athenaeum 23/12, 11.*

b. I shall be working hard when you are enjoying yourself in England.

503. The historical present progressive is rare.

This (pamphlet) was briefly noticed in the May issue of the 'Monthly Review,' where Goldsmith was then acting as scribbler-general to Griffiths, the proprietor of the Magazine . . . , and it was described as in Montesquieu's manner. A year later Goldsmith is writing mysteriously to his friend Bob Bryanton, of Ballymulrey, in Ireland, about a 'Chinese whom he shall soon make talk like an Englishman . . . '

Dobson, *Eighteenth Century Vignettes*, p. 152.

504. On the neutral present progressive see 513 ff.

505. The past progressive is frequently used to define the time of another action or occurrence.

At this point Oswald ceased to read. He was realizing that these words meant that Dolly was dead.

Wells, *Joan and Peter* ch. 6 § 2.

But meantime journalism was giving him the reputation that literature could not give, and, like many another man of letters, he was being loudly acclaimed for work unworthy his talent. Whibley, *Thackeray* p. 76.

An hour later, they were calmly fishing as if nothing had happened. Vachell, *Spragge* p. 164.

They (i. e. the doctors) stretched me out, with a convenient exposure of my side, and, almost before I realised what was happening, the chloroform was being administered.

Wells, *Country* p. 165.

Mr. Gibson had come in very late, and was having a solitary dinner in the dining-room.

Gaskell, *Wives* I ch. 19.

In 1880 California was emerging from its mining stage of existence.

Times W. 2/1, 14.

But even in the earliest forms of English society of which we catch traces this right of self-defence was being modified and restricted by a growing sense of public justice.

Green, *Short Hist.* p. 2.

From 1750 to 1752 he was writing *The Rambler*, a sort of newspaper essay which appeared every Tuesday and Friday.

In the reign of Elizabeth England was just entering on her part in that great struggle among European peoples for the dominion and exploitation of the outlying and recently discovered portions of the planet, which still continues. The foundations of the Empire were being laid by Drake and Hawkins in the Atlantic.

Seccombe and Allen, *Age of Shakesp.* p. 3.

It was Saturday, and all over the Square little stalls, with yellow linen roofs, were being erected for the principal market of the week.

Bennett, *Old W. Tale* I ch. 3 § 4.

When Monica and Margaret were being critical...

Mackenzie, *Guy and Pauline* p. 58.

Where now is the fame of Herbert Spencer who, forty years ago, was being translated into all languages?

Bailey, *Question of Taste* p. 10.

He was drinking, they said, and his farm was going to ruin, and he would speak to nobody — and they shook their heads.

Walpole *Fort. I* ch. 7 p. 80.

The last quotation shows clearly the limited duration expressed by the progressive: *drank* would certainly make

a great difference, for it would express the permanent character of the vice.

506. Both the perfect (*a*) and the past perfect (*b*) occur very frequently in the progressive form.

a. The broad process of change which has now been going on continuously for some years is one of rising guaranteed earnings, shortening hours, and slackening effort. It cannot go on indefinitely without causing economic disaster, which is, in fact, already in progress. Works are closing down, because it is impossible to cover the cost of production by sales, and unemployment is beginning to make itself seriously felt.

The Mail 22/9, 20.

The changes in the Ministry announced this morning should dispose of the crop of rumours with which the Conservative Press has been entertaining its readers for some time past.

Daily News 14/2, 12.

Delightful people — I've been seeing a great deal of them lately.

Cotes, Cinderella ch. 7 p. 81.

You already know we have been having an exciting time here.

Times W. 7/12, 17.

Notoriously the novelist (including the playwright, who is a sub-novelist) has been taking bread out of the mouths of other artists.

Bennett, Eng. Rev. June 1913.

We are at present being borne up on a wave of good trade, and we have been having the strikes associated with it, many in number and large in extent.

Times W. 6/12, 12.

Two or three times I have been beginning to talk about it, and forgetting you weren't to know.

Montgomery, Misunderstood.

b. Peter's mother had been moaning but now she moaned no more... All night Peter's father had been thinking what an imperfect husband he had always been.

Wells, Joan and Peter p. 1 f.

Mr. Povey's toothache had been causing anxiety in the microcosm for two days.

Bennett, Old W. Tale I ch. 1 § 2.

The camp at which his letters met him was in the Busoga country, and all day long the expedition had been tramping between high banks of big-leaved plants.

Wells, Joan and Peter ch. 6 § 2.

But while the county court was thus losing its high place as a judicial tribunal, it had been becoming the very foundation of the political constitution.

Maitland, Const. Hist. p. 43.

They were full of welcome, full of curiosity. All through the long day they had been missing their bright young visitor, and three or four times in every hour they had been wondering and settling what everybody was doing at that exact minute.

Gaskell, Wives I ch. 14.

All this time, while the father was fretting and fuming in his arm-chair, the son, the unlucky cause of all this discomfort, had been standing on the mat outside the door, trying to screw up enough courage to go in as if nothing was the matter with him.

Anstey, Vice Versa ch. 1.

The boy in blue had been looking over his shoulder at a black barge advancing slowly, towed by a gaunt white horse.

Wells, Country p. 172.

507. The future tenses are also used in the progressive forms, but the meaning is seldom the one mentioned until now (*a*). The progressive future generally differs from the non-progressive forms in drawing attention to the process of the action or state; it is more descriptive, representing the future event as the result of causes which are independent of the speaker's will¹⁾.

a. You won't be having to go down to the shop much longer. Walpole, Fortitude II ch. 4 p. 113.

1) Sweet, *New English Grammar* 2251.

b. I am very busy and must stop; but Tom says he will be writing to you next week.

I know if I wait much longer, I shall be telling you the secret before I can stop myself.

Montgomery, Misunderstood p. 81.

When do you suppose you'll be giving me another shilling, father? ib. p. 82.

After a few chapters we find ourselves wondering, not what will happen next in the way in which ordinary story-wrights arouse our wonder, but what the folk will be saying or doing next.

W. Jerrold, Meredith, p. 146.

"Ten years hence," he said, "if Reardon is still alive, I shall be lending him five-pound notes."

Gissing, New Grub Street ch. 1¹⁾.

"Don't go on talking so fast," said Molly. "Rest. No one will interrupt us; I will go on with my sewing; when you want to say anything more I shall be listening."

Gaskell, Wives III p. 79.

But Sheila touched his arm, and he stopped very suddenly. "She doesn't trust us. I shall always be being pushed away from him by her."

Galsworthy, Freeland ch. 9.

"I shall be going to Paris soon," she said. "When I'm there I'll look her up." Sidgwick, Severins p. 185.

If miners and mineowners prove able to devise a system, along the lines agreed upon last week, they will be opening a new phase of industrial history²⁾.

Observer, 31/10, 20.

"When will you be going back, sir?" asked the driver. And Mr. Brumley reflected too briefly and committed a fatal error. "No," he said with his mind upon that loose silver. "We shall go back by train."

Wells, Harman ch. 6 § 5.

1) The non-progressive *I shall lend* would be impossible; it would suggest the speaker's intention.

2) i. e. this will be the effect.

We should not be doing our duty by the public if we echoed without considerable qualification the expression of pleased surprise with which the House of Commons on Tuesday received Mr. Bonar Law's figures.

Times W. 2/11, 17.

I knew that as soon as my father had got to Switzerland he would be wanting to push on to Italy.

Sweet, Element. no. 73.

Those reeds burn like thatch, and if the poor devils ran out they got stabbed or shot, and if they went into the water the crocodiles would be getting them.

Wells, Joan and Peter ch. 3 § 3.

It was part of the etiquette of the shop that customers, at any rate chance customers, should not exist for the daughters of the house, until an assistant had formally drawn attention to them. Otherwise every one who wanted a pennyworth of tape would be expecting to be served by Miss Baines or Miss Sophia, if Miss Sophia were there. Bennett, Old W. Tale I ch. 5 § 4.

Who could have foretold ten years ago that Joan would have been declaring with tears in her voice but much stiffness in her manner that she had "stood enough" from Peter. Wells, Joan and Peter ch. 11 § 1.

He rose. "Ah, well, tea will be getting cold. Good day, Miss Winter." Niven, Porcelain Lady p. 100.

"... Had your tea, Mr. Brough?"

"No — it will be waiting I expect. It's after four now."
ib. p. 142 (same speaker in both cases)¹⁾.

The watcher wondered, with a little prick of jealousy, what they would be discussing in the large bedroom.

Bennett, Old W. T. II ch. 2 § 2.

508. The progressive is also used in the non-future tenses in this descriptive function. Indeed it may be that this is the fundamental function of the progressive, whereas the function that has given rise to the name 'progressive' is

1) Observe that the last three quotations illustrate the future of inference.

only due to the context. It should be added, however, that the progressive function is the usual one in the present and the preterite.

In the following quotations the progressive has a descriptive function.

"We're simply loving it here" 2), Stella said.

Sinister Street p. 987.

We're hoping you will be able to come and dine with us for Twelfth Night. ib. p. 988.

Alan was evidently pleased that he was being able to show Stella his own college. ib. p. 813.

Michael was relieved when Alan offered to drive his mother and Stella back to the Randolph. He was not wishing for company that morning, but rather to walk slowly down to college alone. ib. p. 818.

The other day an intelligent London bookseller was lamenting that he scarcely ever sold a copy of Burns.

Times Lit. 21/1, 15 (introductory sentence).

Guy looked doubtful. It was seeming a pity to waste this afternoon without unpacking a single case.

Mackenzie, Guy and Pauline ch. 1 p. 9.

And how have you been spending the money?

Bennett, Old W. Tale II ch. 4.

No doubt we could, if necessary, carry on for a time without the press; and I agree with those newspaper writers who have been saying recently that the importance of the press is monstrously exaggerated by some of its critics. Raleigh, War and the Press p. 8.

When I call something or somebody 'vulgar,' what precisely (as Mr. T. S. Eliot would critically ask) am I saying? Huxley, Vulg. p. 1.

Stephen caught him by the arm and held him. The old dog came from under the table and wagged his tail.

"Bless my soul," said Stephen, looking at him: "all

1) i.e. loving to live here.

these weeks I've been forgetting him. I've been in a kind of dream, boy — a kind o' dream.'

Walpole, Fort. I ch. 7 § 2 p. 84 f.

509. The progressive imperative is chiefly found in negative sentences, but it is little used.

Don't be talking. Let me just suck this in as we go along. Phillpotts, Beacon I ch. 5.

510. In the preceding sections the progressive has been illustrated in the function of a verbal predicate, including the verbal groups with the participle (perfect) and the plain stem (future). But we also find the form in the non-predicative functions of the verb, both with the plain stem and the stem with *to*. The progressive ing is so rare as to be negligible. It is sufficient to show its possibility by giving one of the few quotations met with (all in Jane Austen) in the course of a quarter of a century's reading.

To be driven by him, next to being dancing with him, was certainly the greatest happiness in the world.

Jane Austen, Northanger Abbey ch. 20.

511. The progressive plain stem has been illustrated with the auxiliaries *shall* and *will* in 507. It is also found with the other auxiliaries that take the plain stem, but never in the object with stem construction.

We'd better be going back, or they'll be there before us.
Sweet, Spoken Eng. p. 85.

And it happens that I have money that I must presently be leaving, and never a child have I to leave it to. Wells, Country p. 140.

It is a strange thing, he says in another letter, that, because she is handsome, he must be always giving her an account of every trifle and minute of his time.

Dobson, Vignettes, p. 21.

By 1.30 I must have been being introduced in the dark, large hall of the place to Miss Heimann and Miss Jeaffreson, who had been getting their things on.

F. M. Ford, The Marsden Case ch. 2 p. 18.

On the last example, compare 520.

512. The progressive stem with *to* is more frequent than the plain stem, in nearly all the functions of the stem with *to*, except in free adjuncts and exclamations (*a*); it is of limited use in the object with stem (*b*). The durative aspect of the ing naturally prevents its being ever used to express aim; nor is it used in the object with stem depending upon verbs of cause or will.

a. We didn't know anything about towns, and Ma had made us very excited by talking about the rich people we were going to know — and marry. She always used to be talking about marriage. She doesn't do it so much now.

Gilbert Cannan, Round the Corner, p. 93.

I suspect M. Mermeix of laughing at us even when he professes to be admiring, for he is the kind of man that would speak disrespectfully of the Equator. Daily Mail.

Nothing looks worse in a boy than to be always intruding where he's not wanted.

Pett Ridge, Name of Garland ch. 10, p. 167.

Mr. Webb looked rather grave and seemed to be thinking the matter over. Sweet, Spoken Engl. p. 52.

On such a night it seemed more than ever romantic to be setting out to Spain. Sinister Street p. 676.

I cannot bear to be always suspecting people.

Sweet, Sp. Engl. p. 83.

How did you come to be taking my pheasant's nest?

ib. p. 65.

You are much too young yet to be meeting young men.

Bennett, Old W. Tale p. 127.

There is no need to be always bringing up your age on every possible occasion. Gaskell, Wives I ch. 8 p. 138.

To be rising is in many respects more agreeable than to have risen. J. O. Hobbes, Emotions II ch. 3.

It was perhaps that Clare had always had a cloud of young men about her, perhaps that Peter was thought to be having too wonderful a time, just now, to be falling in love as well — that would be piling Life on to Life!... no one could live under it.

Walpole, Fort. III ch. 3 p. 258.

Can you tell me where the lists are for football? I ought to have been playing yesterday, only I didn't know where to look. ib. I ch. 5 p. 51.

Early one summer morning in England, in the year 1893 in the reign — which seemed in those days to have been going on for ever and to be likely to go on for evermore — of Queen Victoria there was born a little boy named Peter. Wells, Joan and Peter p. 1.

b. It (viz. Mrs. B's death) might be soon, for I can see worthy Mrs. Bonner to be breaking visibly.

Meredith, Harrington ch. 19 p. 204.

Special Meanings
of the
Progressive

513. The progressive, as has been stated in 500, generally expresses duration, although this may not be its fundamental meaning, as is suggested especially by the progressive forms with *shall* and *will* (507). The progressive when implying duration always refers to a limited time, but it may be used with such adverb adjuncts as *always*, *constantly*, *perpetually*, etc. expressing repetition (*a*). Sometimes there is no adverb, the sense being implied by another element of the sentence (*b*).

a. We are always saying that boys and girls must think for themselves, yet they are rarely allowed to do so.

Perse Playbooks no 2. p. 2.

Our Vienna Correspondent says he is constantly being asked: — "Is there no means of avoiding war?" The same question is now being asked, with some bewilderment, by millions of men in this country. Times W.

It is an old story and one that is always being renewed. Times Lit. 20/1, 16.

This elusive line between journalism and literature is always appearing and always fading away.

ib. 16/9, 15.

Only he has rather a peculiar temper. He is perpetually getting angry with no ostensible reason — and then he glares at one like an angry cat.

Crawford, *Lonely Parish* ch. 9.

The curfew is being rung at Wigan every evening as a warning for the subduing of lights.

Times W. 1916.

From the Riga region to that of Jacobstadt, on the Eastern front, Russian attacks are being made with persistence.

ib. 12/1, 17.

And every week he was being offered these "cripplés."

Vachell, *Quinneys'* p. 171.

Her benevolence was eternally rising up and overpowering her reason. Bennett, *Old W.* Tale p. 24.

If he rarely spoke to me of Charis Darley, although they were meeting almost daily, it was not because he then mistrusted me. White, *Mr. John Strood* p. 192.

"That is the same drug that I was always bringing him," said Poole. Stevenson, *Dr. Jekyll*, p. 83.

Where he got the phrase I do not know, but he liked it, and was always repeating it.

Rutherford, *Autobiography* p. 44.

Some of my abodes I have utterly forgotten; for one reason or another I was always moving.

Gissing, *Ryecroft* X.

He had seen the death-like pallor on his wife's face; not a new sight, and one which had been presented to him gradually enough, but which was now always giving him a fresh shock. Gaskell, *Wives* I ch. 17.

Sam Figgis had hung holly about the walls and dangled a huge bunch of mistletoe from the middle beam, and poor Jane Clewer was always walking under it accidentally and waiting a little, but nobody kissed her.

Walpole, *Fort. I* ch. 1 p. 5.

Clare spends her days in successive enthusiasms. She's always being enthusiastic — dreadful disillusionments in between the heights. ib. III ch. 3 p. 261.

The difficulties of getting and sending money seem to have been great indeed, and Ralph and his father were always lending money to impecunious friends who take a long time to return it, if at all.

Mem. Verney Fam. I p. 229.

The shell of the house on Robin Hill was thus completed by the end of April. Now that there was something to be seen for his money, he had been coming down once, twice, even three times a week, and would mouse about among the débris for hours.

Galsworthy, Man of Property II ch. 1.

Thus between 1560 and 1580 the influence of Italy was suggesting to English dramatists an ever widening range of choice in character and subject ...

Seccombe and Allen, Shakespeare I p. 12.

b. As a result of the Turkish defeats, there is considerable unrest among the native population in India. Hindu agitators, joined by Mahometans, are holding meetings, at which violent speeches are being delivered.

Everyman.

514. There is no doubt that in all these sentences repetition is *meant to be understood*. But that is not saying that repetition is really *expressed*, at any rate expressed by the progressive form of the verb.

In most of the sentences there is an adverb of time (*always, perpetually, for ever*) which is essentially used to express continuation. We must therefore conclude that the progressive has its usual meaning here.

But it is also true that the speakers, though they express continuation, do not really mean the hearer to understand that as literally true. Thus, if we say of a man: *he is always grumbling and complaining*, we express a continuous action, although it is really something that is repeated so regularly that it only *seems* to be continuous.

Another proof that it is not the progressive that conveys the idea of repetition, is supplied by the sentences where the non-progressive form expresses the same meaning, as in the following sentence.

I constantly remark, both in our popular histories and in occasional allusions to the eighteenth century, what a faint and confused impression that period has left upon the national memory.

Seeley, Expansion Lect. II p. 20.

We also find both forms in the same sentences.

Dolf was continually getting into scrapes; his mother was incessantly harassed with complaints.

W. Irving, Sketch-Book.

A man who thinks much about success must be the drowsiest sentimentalist; for he must be always looking back. If he only likes victory he must always come late for the battle.

Chesterton, What's Wrong with the World (T) p. 18.

515. Sometimes the progressive seems to contribute to the expression of personal interest.

Our forefathers, those extremely wise forefathers who are always being held up to us foolish sons as examples and shining lights, had a custom of inscribing over the doors, etc.

Garvice, Staunch as a Woman, p. 5.

This Age, we are always being told, is sceptical and materialistic; and so in many of its aspects it is.

Times W.

He had an unfailing source of pride in his wife, who was really beautiful and had frequently been likened to the Marquise in *Caste*, a play which his daughters were always performing in the cause of charity.

Cannan, Corner, p. 31.

Minna was decidedly pretty, with a wide delightful grin and a mocking humour. The most serious and solemn young men were always proposing to her, but she always refused them or became engaged to them for

about a week. Her betrothals hardly ever seemed to survive the visit to their families. ib. p. 59.

Frederic was always sending in small bills that were too large for his (i.e. the father's) small earnings. ib. p. 60.

She did not care about golf, and to-day the mere sound of the name irritated her. Englishmen were always playing golf, she said to herself.

Hichens, Ambition ch. 15.

He was a marvel of tact and good nature. "My wife is unfortunately not here, and the house is rather at sixes and sevens; but I have sent out for some tea." She followed him downstairs into the parlour. He poured out a cup of tea.

"I was forgetting," she said. "I am forbidden tea. I mustn't drink it."

Bennett, Old W. Tale IV, ch. 4 § 3.

"And when you're not bored with anybody," said Monica, "you're rather apt to make that too obvious also."

"Monica, why are you saying that?" Pauline asked with wide open eyes.

Mackenzie, Guy and Pauline p. 100.

516. There is no doubt that these sentences express the writer's interest, sometimes impatience, as in several of the quotations, or humour, as in the one about Minna. But it is the context that causes this meaning. The function of the progressive is here to express continuation or to be descriptive.

If in the sentence about Minna the author had said that many young men proposed to her, he would have stated a bare fact. But the progressive *were always proposing* conjures up a most humorous picture of the never-ending procession of these would-be lovers.

517. The verbal ing, being a nominal form of the verb, does not express its relation to the agent or 'subject' in

the way a predicative verb does (153). The consequence of this is that the progressive can be used in a way that makes the verb intransitive, although the predicative forms of the verb always express a transitive meaning.

The house has been building for some months.

Your book is binding.

Guns were firing and trumpets blowing.

Hope, Zenda.

The other oven was firing. Bennett, Anna ch. 8.

The next day Edward resumed his forester's dress, while another one was preparing for him.

Marryat, New Forest ch. 24.

At the very moment that this painful piece of perfidy was acting inside the prison walls, Henson was himself on his way to London.

Hammond, Town Labourer p. 255.

From that distant tower he kept a surprisingly close watch upon what was doing among the bookmen.

But meanwhile the seeds of a mighty revolution were sowing. Freeman, Norman Conquest I, 39.

All the substantialities of his scheme of policy, most of its details, even, had been tossing about in the public journals and other channels of information for days before.

Pilot 10/12, 1903.

"But you will allow that in matters musical my opinion is worth something, my serious and deliberately formed opinion."

"How long has this opinion been forming?"

"Some months." Hichens, Ambition ch. 1.

The sneer at St. Luke's Square was his characteristic expression of an opinion which had been slowly forming for some years. Bennett, Old W. Tale II ch. 7 § 1.

In brief, something new had come to the front and was submitting to the ordeal of the curse. ib. ib.

It is true that the actual machinery of educational reform is shaping very slowly. Times Ed. S. 28/9, 16.

The warm weather always sets me up in a wonderful way; but alas! our days in Hampstead for this summer are *numbering*¹⁾ — for on July 1 I am due as usual in Bristol. Ainger, Life p. 161.

National states were forming.

Pollard, Hist. of Engl. p. 88.

These uses of the ing are clearly identical with the meaning of *printing* as an adjunct in the following sentence.

Dick once asked a maid

To be his (so it's said)

While the photos were finishing printing —

Jessie Pope in Van Doorn, Golden Hours II, 122.

518. In some cases a verb may be used both transitively and intransitively in the simple predicative forms as well as in the progressive, but many verbs are chiefly used intransitively in the progressive. Thus *to publish* is indeed found used intransitively in the simple forms, but only exceptionally, whereas the intransitive progressive is quite frequent.

Who know the London newspapers? How many outside a strictly commercial circle are aware that the *Public Ledger*, to which Oliver Goldsmith contributed the 'Citizen of the World' papers, still publishes each morning on Tower Hill, in its 153rd year?

Athenaeum 28/9 '12.

A collection of photographic views is now publishing by the Werner Company.

519. As a personal subject may cause the verb to be taken in a transitive meaning, it is natural that the subject of the sentence should rarely be a name of a person when the verb is used intransitively. But a personal subject is possible.

1) Italics in the original.

How is that Mrs. Gilchrist shaping as a nurse?

Bennett, Old W. Tale II ch. 3.

But the thoughtful woman teacher would herself be the first to acknowledge that for the effective training of elder boys and of the youths who fill our continuation schools masters are really indispensable. The plain truth is that they are not offering. Times Ed. S. 17/7, 19.

520. The progressive when making a verb assume an intransitive meaning is an alternative to the passive of occurrence (*is being done*). It has been shown in the preceding sections that this form is freely used in English; it is, indeed, more usual than the construction with the simple ing illustrated in 517—9, which is limited to some traditional groups and is perhaps literary rather than colloquial.

When activity is to be expressed the passive group must be used. The last quotation of 518, though there is an adjunct with *by*, does not express activity; the adjunct is one of means and does not denote the agent.

The progressive passive is rather cumbersome, and when the verb group contains *have*, *shall*, or *will*, the construction becomes too complicated (*has been being done*, *will be being done*) to be used other than exceptionally. An example has been given in 507 b in the quotation from Galsworthy, another in the last example of 511.

Verbs not used in the
Progressive

521. Some verbs are rarely used in the progressive or not at all¹). This may be:

- (1) because they are not usually connected with a *limited* time. Such are many verbs expressing feelings and mental or physical perceptions (not sensations): *to love, to hate, to detest, to like, to prefer, to see,*

¹⁾ Palmer, Grammar of Spoken English p. 149.

to hear, to believe; also to belong, to consist, to contain, to possess, to resemble, to suffice.

- (2) because they are purely perfective: *to think* (i. e. be of opinion), *to persuade, to accept, to forgive, to recognize, to result, to understand.*

Some of the verbs of the first group can also express an activity depending upon a person's will; in that case the progressive can be used, naturally. For an example, see 508, the first quotation (*love* means 'to enjoy' there), and the following.

He is hearing lectures on political economy.

Far off, an owl hooted, an otter barked; and then as he crossed the middle of the orchard he was hearing nothing but apples fall with solemn thud, until the noise of the lock-gate swallowed all lighter sounds.

Mackenzie, Guy and Pauline p. 22.

That's because you don't know any, said Christopher, who wasn't liking Lewes at that moment.

Love, by Elizabeth and her German Garden p. 20.

Guy laughed. Misgivings about the wisdom of his choice vanished, and he was being conscious of a very intimate pleasure in thus driving back to Wychford from the station. Mackenzie, Guy and Pauline p. 14 f.

"But I mean, brother, dreaming is what I detest so."

"Don't be detesting, my dear; reserve your strength," said he. Meredith, Amazing Marriage p. 43.

A great many quotations of the progressive of verbs of the first group have been given by van der Gaaf in *Englische Studien* vol. 62 p. 405. I repeat the following, suggesting the possibility at the same time that some of the examples of the construction in George Eliot may be dialectal: it is probably not chance that van der Gaaf has found so many in her novels, because, as he points out himself, the progressive is far more frequent in dialectal than in Standard English.

Violet Campion is hating me pretty badly, and — she — is thinking it clever to follow suit.

Ethel Dell, *Keeper of the Door* p. 196.

"Were you wishing to see Mr. Blackburn?"

Beatrice Harraden, *Interplay* (T.) II p. 218.

In my mind's eye I was seeing my dear girl as if by flashes of lightning. Hall Caine, *Drink III*.

I believe half his time he was seeing visions.

H. Ward, *Elsmere VI*.

He was believing that he should triumph.

Eliot, *Deronda* ch. 27.

Mrs. Arrowpoint, who was hearing this dialogue, perceived quite a new tone in Gwendolen's speech. ib. ch. 5.

The same explanation may account for the progressive of *to see* in the following quotation; but perhaps it was used only to make the sentence more descriptive.

And anyone who saw her would have wondered what on earth she might be seeing, gazing out with her dark, glowing eyes. Galsworthy, *Freelands*, Prologue.

If a verb is purely momentaneous the durative progressive cannot be used; yet a verb like *to persuade* is used in the progressive. The result is that the meaning changes: *I was persuading him to come with us* means *I was trying to persuade him*¹⁾. Apart from this case, however, purely momentaneous verbs are rarely used in the progressive.

The progressive of *to think* in the following quotation is not durative but descriptive.

You've known each other for some time, I'm thinking? —

Why, yes, we have, indeed; though it is only lately that we have found out how fond we are of one another.

Strand Mag. Aug. 1926 p. 124.

1) Compare the Latin and Greek *imperfectum de conatu*. But in English the use is not limited to the past tense: *I am persuading*, *I have been persuading* are also possible.

Progressive and Non-progressive Forms Compared

522. It has been stated that the progressive present, as it lays stress on the process of the action, is specially used in connection with the present time; whereas the non-progressive present is often timeless, or at least leaves the idea of time in the background.

The difference seems to be well brought out by the following quotations.

"You ought to remember," said a worthy master to a boy bungling over a passage of Virgil, "that you are translating poetry!" — "It's not poetry when I translate it," said the boy with pathetic veracity.

Journal of Eng. St. I, 153.

... and in his book on Magdalen College the existing President, Dr. T. H. Warren, describes the tapestry presented to the Lodgings¹⁾ in memory of the Prince's marriage. The tapestry still hangs in the President's Lodgings.

Times W. 11/10, 12.

The progressive *is still hanging* would emphasize the idea of limited time, thus suggesting that there was a plan of removing the tapestry.

523. For the same reason the non-progressive preterite seems to be used in the following sentence of the introductory chapter of J. L. Allen's *Mettle of the Pasture*:

One of her hands lay palm upward on her white lap; in the other, which drooped over the arm of the chair, she clasped a young rose red amid its leaves.

The non-progressive forms are used because the writer describes a picture. The progressive would suggest that the description was introductory to the relation of an event that took place at the same time. This also accounts for

1) i. e. the President's official residence.

the non-progressive in Old Wives' Tale II ch. 3 § 1: *Constance stood at the large many-paned window*, etc.

524. The progressive present is freely used to refer to future time. It is also used when the future time is not indicated otherwise than by the context, in cases when the non-progressive form would be inadmissible.

Mr. A. D. Godley is publishing with Messrs. Smith and Elder on the 31st inst. 'The Casual Ward: Academic and Other Oddments'. Athen. 9/11, 12.

I am going to the theatre to-night.

When is he coming back from America?

I am not playing football any more this year.

Are you dining there on Saturday?

I am remaining in America till after the elections.

There is no other river in the wide world quite like the Thames, and the life on the Thames during the summer months is different from life anywhere else. There are some who revel in it, and some who declare, after a very brief experience, that they are never coming near the Thames because they do not like the crowds, the strange people. Academy 17/8, 12.

525. The non-progressive form may also help to make the statement more general, i. e. less descriptive.

Then give it up. His future bride is now pinafored and bread-and-buttery. She romps, she cries, she dreams of play and pudding. Meredith, Feverel ch. 13.

The toll of damage to property has mounted day by day as new facts have become known. Spectator, 14/1, 28.

The number of publications dealing directly and indirectly with the Montessori method steadily grows.

Teacher's World 28/1, 14.

Everywhere there reigns a just suspicion of the whole of that tendency in criticism which would substitute legislation for understanding; and it is more and more recognized that there can be no possible predetermination of the creative activity of art. Times Lit. 14/10, 20.

In the first sentence the progressive (*is romping*, etc.) would suggest that a definite person was referred to.

The progressive in the following quotation evidently serves to express the writer's personal interest in his statement. Compare also Sweet's remark in 507.

Good work has been done by Mikkelsen, who has been in the Arctic for nearly three years, and has made many journeys in the north-east of Greenland. There is not so much to be done in the North as there is in the South, but from time to time no doubt expeditions of various sizes and with various objects in view will be starting out. Sir E. Shackleton in *Everyman*.

526. The contrast between the future progressive expressing an event that is considered as independent of the will of the person concerned and the future with *shall* or *will* and the simple plain stem is clearly shown by the following sentences.

How long will you stay? — For a couple of days, a week at most. We're just going for a long week-end, that's all. Collinson, p. 10.

How long have you been in London? — Only a short time. I've been in England for close on a month now. — How long will you be staying? — Another three weeks. I hope to stay till the end of next month. id. ib.

527. It has been shown that repetition may be expressed by the non-progressive as well as by the progressive forms. The following two passages seem exactly parallel, but the alternative construction would be a mistake in both cases.

Mrs. Shiffney, who was perpetually changing her mind in the chase after happiness, changed it about India. Hichens, *Ambition* ch. 20.

Very soon Alston was almost as one of the Heath family. He came perpetually to the studio "to try things over." ib. ch. 18.

The use of the progressive *was coming* might suggest that his frequent visits were not quite welcome.

528. Not infrequently the progressive is avoided because it has just been used, so that its repetition would be over-emphatic.

A Saturday afternoon in November *was approaching* the time of twilight, and the vast tract of unenclosed wild known as Egdon Heath *embrowned itself* moment by moment. Hardy, Native, opening sentence.

Stephen *was sitting* in the upstairs room scratching his head over his accounts, whilst his old mother *sat* dozing, with her knitting fallen on to her lap by the fire¹⁾. Walpole, Fort. I ch. 3 § 2 p. 30.

529. The definition of the progressive as a form for the continuous aspect might suggest a comparison with the verbs accompanied by the adverb *on*: *to be living* and *to live on*. It is easy to see the difference: the progressive often expresses (or implies) continuity; the semi-compounds with *on* also express that something continues, but they emphasize the break between the two periods of time.

To Be To

530. The third of the purely verbal groups with *to be* is the one with the stem with *to*. Whereas in the two preceding groups, the passive and the progressive, the verb *to be* has no meaning at all, and is identical in function with the verb when forming a group with a predicative adjective, noun, or adverb (444), it may have a meaning

1) It will be observed that *sat* is a subordinate element of this verbal group, and has medium stress consequently. This is not the reason why the writer used the non-progressive form, but its accidental effect.

when forming a group with the stem with *to*. The following cases can be distinguished:

- (1) *to be* with a perfective meaning, expressing:
 - a) movement; type: *I have been to see John.*
 - b) to happen; type: Virginia's reply to Miss Nunn's letter brought another note next morning — Saturday. It *was to request* a call from the sisters that same afternoon (Gissing, *The Odd Women*, ch. 3).
- (2) *to be* as a copula; type: *he is to blame.*
- (3) *to be* with a meaning that is difficult to define, but approaches 'to exist'; type: *We are to be down before nine*¹.

The last two constructions will now be treated in the order indicated. They are not distinguished by any traditional names, and it does not seem advisable to invent new names for them; it is probably more practical to indicate each of them by a typical example.

Type *he is to blame* 531. The simple stem with *to* is a nominal predicate in the case illustrated by the following sentences.

Mr. Aiken was certainly to blame for not locking the door and not taking away the key.

de Morgan, *A Likely Story* ch. 1 p. 12.

And I unfolded what there was to unfold about South Africa and the Minnebiac Rifles.

Cotes, *Cinderella* ch. 8 p. 91.

This, of which I once was scornfully proud, seems to be now, if not a calamity, something I would not choose if life were to live again. Gissing, *Ryecroft* VIII.

1) However difficult it may be to find a meaning in *to be* in some of these constructions, there evidently exists a difference between the first as against the other two groups. Observe, too, that *to be* in the first group is stronger-stressed than in the other two; this difference is evident in 1 b.

Speaking of artists in general, she (viz. Mrs. Craigie) said: "They think more than there is to think, feel more than there is to feel, see more than there is to see."

Academy 15/11, 1902.

Nor did he see more than a little of what there was to see. Galsworthy, *Beyond*.

The second thought is this: that some books are to borrow and others are to buy. Davies, Super-Tramp,
Foreword to new edition p. XVI.

532. The character of the stem in the preceding construction is so much that of a nominal predicate that a stem may become the equivalent of a predicative adjective, so that it can take an adverb of degree before it. Compare 537.

The King's English is rather to seek in the circular which has been issued^{1).} Academy 2/1, 1901.

And *far* and *long* are rather adjuncts to the stem than vice versa in the following.

The reason is not far to seek.

Pollock (NED s. v. *Seek*).

However, there was not long to wait before Selina's voice ... greeted her. Mackenzie, Rich Rel. ch. 9 p. 227.

533. It will be noted that the stem of verbs that are usually transitive is not unaffected by the character of the construction; for in many of the examples quoted in 531 it is intransitive rather than transitive. This is in accordance with what we have observed in the other non-predicative verbal form, the ing (128 ff.). It should be observed, however, that the simple stem, though it might be said to express the meaning of the passive of occurrence, is never an equivalent of the passive of activity: the predicative

¹⁾ It is probably better to interpret *rather* as a sentence-adverb here.

simple stem in this construction never takes an adjunct with *by* denoting the agent.

534. The predicative stem in this construction can naturally be qualified by a following, or preceding, adverb in *-ly*. In the latter case the construction may closely resemble a stem as an adjunct to a predicative adjective (478), provided that the adjective can take this construction, as is the case with *easy*, *hard*, *difficult*, etc.

But women are not easily to be read.

Hichens, Ambition ch. 34 p. 412.

He had been refused charity at a house and, on leaving the place, had spied a small outhouse in which he saw many things easy to carry, and easily to be converted into money.

Davies, Super-Tramp ch. 16 p. 126.

But the true inwardness of their position is not easily to be understood. Pilot 30/4, 1904 p. 410/2.

But there is no alternative with a predicative adjective in the following case.

The subject is not thus lightly to be dismissed.

Type *we are to be down before nine* **535.** The type of which we are now going to treat strongly resembles the preceding construction; the verb *to be* in the sentence *we are to be down before nine*, though not quite a copula, is certainly very far from expressing such a distinct independent meaning as 'to exist', which has been the definition of the meaning of *to be* in the sentences quoted in 441a. On the other hand, *to be* in the sentences to be treated in the following sections cannot be considered as a verb without any meaning at all; the cases, though resembling those of 531, cannot be identified with them.

536. The verb *to be* followed by a stem with *to* (including *to be* with participle as a passive group-stem) can

be used to express an arrangement (i. e. an intended result). The predicative verb is almost invariably a present tense or a preterite; other cases will be mentioned at the end of this chapter by way of appendix, because they are of no importance to the character of the construction.

The arrangement may be:

(1) an agreement made between two or more persons.

We were to meet at 5 under the Big Clock at the Station; we promised each other to be punctual.

If we are to be down before nine we shall have to be quick; and we ought to, for we have a lot of work to do.

Normandy was to be invaded on each side.

Freeman, Norman Conquest.

(2) an arrangement made by one person for another.

The construction often expresses mere futurity.

With the verb in the second person (or in interrogative sentences in the first person) it is often equivalent to a command, for it states the thing to be done as something settled, about which discussion is not to be thought of.

The arrangement or command may proceed from the speaker (in interrogative sentences from the person spoken to), or from a third person.

In reported speech, *to be* may express the command of the subject of the main clause.

Here is the plan I had made. A strong party under Sapt's command was to steal up to the door of the *château*. If discovered prematurely, they were to kill any one who found them — with their swords, for I wanted no noise of firing. If all went well, they would be at the door when Johann opened it. They were to rush in and secure the servants if their mere presence and the use of the king's name were not enough. At the same moment — and on this hinged the plan — a woman's cry was to ring out loud and shrill from Antoinette de Mauban's chamber... Hope, Zenda.

Large sums are now being spent on educational developments, and still larger sums are to be spent in the near future¹⁾. Times Ed. S. 25/9, 19.

(*Master to servant*): "You are to go to Mr. B. first, and then take these letters to the post."

"Write, Tom." — "What am I to write, father?"

"No, no, Muriel! You're not to go. Jim, you can't — you shan't — take her! I won't allow it."

Ethel M. Dell, *Way of an Eagle* p. 242.

You said I was to write the letter before I might go out, but how could I when I had no note-paper?

Remember the last thing papa told us at the window, Herbert: we were to keep our mouths closed and to breathe through our noses. Allen, *Doctor's Christmas Eve*.

In the New Year of 1914 Oswald was to take Peter to Russia for three weeks.

Wells, Joan and Peter ch. 11 § 19.

(3) an arrangement in which the acting persons are rather vaguely thought of.

Two papers by Ouida, which have been held over by express agreement until her death, are to appear in an early number of *Lippincott's Magazine*.

537. When the future event expressed by the construction is not regarded from the standpoint of the people to whom the actions are future, but from the standpoint of the observer, the idea of arrangement disappears completely. With the verb in the past tense it can express destiny.

All that is implied by the romance of Rome brings to the slopes of the Vatican Hill year by year an enormous crowd and a diversity of pilgrims. And throughout the holy year of 1925 they *are to come* in numbers which even in our crowded world of to-day are significant. Times Lit. 1/1, 1925 p. 1/2.

1) If the two cases of *are* here do not show a difference of meaning, they show a difference all the same, the second being stronger-stressed.

Of the men who were to illustrate the Victorian age, only one or two had given earnest of their powers.

Forster-Gissing p. 49.

It was felt even then that a remedy of some kind would have to be found, if the empire was not to drift upon the rocks.

The year 1917 in Canada was full of great events, which were to determine the share that Canada should take in the future prosecution of the war. Times W. 4/1, 18.

When the stem is a verb of little independent meaning it is sometimes equivalent to a predicative adjective expressing the idea of 'future'. Compare 532.

The English Plato is still *to be*.

Times Lit. 15/1, 1920.

Lennan ... seemed to know all that had passed, all that might be *to come*.

Galsworthy, Dark Flower III ch. 11 p. 268.

538. The construction sometimes expresses what should be (*a*) or what can be (*b*). The stem is often a group-passive.

a. Whether the story of Gottfried Plattner is to be credited or not is a pretty question in the value of evidence. Wells, Country p. 204.

Meanwhile the critical party were by no means agreed among themselves as to the theory which was to take the place of the traditional theory.

Times Lit. 22/2, 18.

Johnson's resolute insistence on life and reason, not learning or ingenuity, as the standard by which books are to be judged.

Both editor and contributors are to be congratulated on the performance of a great task.

Such answers are not to be called rude when the rudeness, if such there be, is only one ingredient in a compound of which the principal parts are humour and felicity.

'What was one to do,' exclaimed Mrs. Fyne with almost comic exasperation. Conrad, Chance.

The construction is most likely to be regarded as elliptical.

b. How are we to know that you are not one of the enemy's spies? Buchanan, Winter Night ch. 8.

But how was I to gain admission to the house?

Weyman, Red Robe ch. 2.

How are we to get rid of this distinction we have made between the artist and the tradesman? How are we to recover for the artist the virtues of the craftsman and for the craftsman the virtues of the artist?

Times Lit. 15/6, 16.

London is not to be loved at first sight. You must get to know her. ib. 23/3, 16.

It seems that possibility is chiefly expressed in negative and interrogative sentences, as in all the cases above. But this meaning is also found in affirmative sentences. See also 101.

The twins were to be distinguished by their voices.

539. Sometimes it is difficult to decide whether duty, obligation or possibility is expressed, especially in conditional clauses.

The experiment is one requiring many talents in the writer if success is to be ensured. Athenaeum 14/3, 1908.

But if this charge is to be rebutted it is time for Churchmen to realize that the proposal for compromise should come from them. Pilot 17/10, 1903.

The transitory mental aberration of Sidney Davidson, remarkable enough in itself, is still more remarkable if Wade's explanation is to be credited. Wells, Country p. 87.

We need to be equally frank in recognizing the existing drawbacks in the connexion between Church and State if we are to find a remedy for them. Times Lit. 11/1, 18.

540. We do not find the group-perfect (with *have*) nor the group-future (with *shall* and *will*) of *to be* in this construction. The reasons for this seem evident. For the

perfect serves to look back upon the past in its bearing upon the present, whereas the construction of *to be to* here treated is concerned with the future. And as it distinctly refers to future time there is no need for expressing this by means of *shall* and *will*.

The group-perfect is used to express motion, as shown in 441.

It is also quite exceptional for the non-predicative *be* to be used in this construction, although it is possible, as in the following sentence.

But he could have followed, even guided only by the scattered pursuing units that came from far behind him, endowed with a mysterious knowledge (acquired Heaven knows how) that there was a fight, and that it *would be to be found* (if not too late) *acrost*¹ the Gas-gardens on some land with a board up. de Morgan, Vance ch. I.

541. Although *to be* in the construction dealt with here is not quite a meaningless verb, it is evident that there is a close connection between this construction and the preceding one, in which *to be* was interpreted as a copula. This is also shown by the fact that the stem with *to* can express the meanings enumerated here when it is used with another verb of little independent meaning, as in these quotations.

His language is substantially the ordinary literary English of his day, and he falls therefore to be considered among English authors.

Chambers's Cyclopaedia of Engl. Lit.

(This) seemed to him the greatest danger that remains to be encountered by the Anglo-Saxon race.

Times Lit. 8/6, 16.

542. *To be* is distinctly a copula in such sentences as *It is easy to do.*

1) Dialectal form of *across*.

She was by no means bad to look at.
 That question was not easy to answer.
 The puma never should be attempted single-handed,
 for it is so hard to kill.

But occasionally this construction is mixed with the preceding one so that the group-passive is used: *It is not easy to be done.*

To say what in her judgment was best to be done.
 Rev. of Rev., Febr. 1901, p. 113/2.

To Have

543. Next in importance after *to be*, as an auxiliary, comes *to have*. It will be most convenient to treat it in the same way as *to be*, and first to enumerate its meanings as a verb of full meaning, or at least as a verb with a noun-adjunct only, and to refer to these meanings when we deal with *to have* as a member of mixed nominal-verbal or purely verbal groups.

544. The fundamental meaning of *to have* may be taken to be 'to hold,' as is still clear in the compound *to behave* 'to hold oneself,' although this is not connected with the simple verb in living English. This is also the meaning in the following sentences: *She had a book in her hand; I have no money with me.*

When the object denotes a person's possessions the verb naturally comes to mean 'to possess', as in the alliterative legal term *to have and to hold*. This meaning is found in: *How many shares have you in the company?* The construction does not change when the object is accompanied by an adjunct as in the following sentence: *If riches have wings to fly away from their owner, they have wings also to escape danger* (New Engl. Dict. s. v.

have no. 3); *They had him to dine with them at the inn* (Thackeray, Esmond, ib. no. 2).

The last sentence hardly illustrates the meaning ‘to possess’; the same must be said of *to have* with such objects as *a father, a wife, a husband*, etc.: *She had two sons married in New York, and another who was now in Europe* (Henry James, Daisy Miller ch. 2 p. 28); also when the subject is non-personal: *The house has a very high roof; The room has three windows; February has twenty-eight days.*

Not infrequently the object expresses the real meaning of the group, *to have* serving for little more than a connecting verb like the copula *to be*. This is the case in such groups as *to have a cold, to have grey hair*, and in these sentences:

She moved back from him and pushed at her hair
in the nervous way that she had.

Walpole, Fort. II ch. 5 p. 197.

The sloes had a very sour taste.

See 626.

545. When the object expresses a mental process, and in other cases, *to have* comes to mean ‘to experience’.

I have no doubt the Italian is at the bottom of all
this. Shorthouse, Inglesant I ch. 15.

The worst administration which we have ever had.
N.E.D.

She had intended to have a stormy scene. But she
did not have it. Rosalind Murray, Moonseed.

Sir Edward Grey went on to deal with current politics.
He said that if they did not have a great industrial
crisis they should proceed with the ordinary business of
the Session. Daily News 19/2, 12.

Similarly in the following sentences.

On one trip we had a very stormy passage.

Davies, Super-Tramp ch. I p. 2.

They were having dinner — Bobby, Mrs. Galleon and Peter — in the studio of the Cheyne Walk House.
Walpole, Fort. III ch. I § 3 p. 236.

This meaning of *to have* is very frequent with the stem of verbs used as an abstract noun with the indefinite article: *to have a smoke, wash, feed, etc.* See volume 3 on *Conversion*.

546. All the preceding meanings of the verb *to have* may be said to be durative, as far as the aspect can be defined. But *to have* can also have a perfective sense, as in the following quotations.

James Forsyte said: "You ought *to have* another opinion¹⁾. *Have* Blank; he's the first man now. I had him for Emily; cost me two hundred guineas..."

Galsworthy, Caravan p. 1.

Matter and form are not so separable as the popular philosophy would have them. Raleigh, Style p. 62.

She had the steps up into her bedroom and reached down from the dusty top of the wardrobe the box which she had put there after Samuel's funeral.

Bennett, Old W. Tale ch. 8 § I p. 269.

It would indeed hardly have surprised me if I had been had into a room, or shown strange symbols of good and evil. Benson, Thread of Gold p. 26.

To have as a verb of full meaning is also illustrated in the sections on the auxiliary *do*.

547. In 544 an example has been quoted of *to have* with *to* (*riches have wings to fly away*); the stem here is

1) i. e. send for or consult him as a doctor.

as much an adjunct to the group *have wings* as to *wings* alone. The stem may be an attributive adjunct to the noun and the meaning of the verb may be much weakened. This is the case in the following sentences.

I'm sick of hearing that I ruined your career. You never had a career to ruin.

W. Somerset Maugham, *The Circle* II, Brit. Pl. p. 618.

Miss Monogue had things to tell him about the book.
Walpole, *Fort. II* ch. 4 p. 183.

Perhaps the laughing attitude of *Cards to Peter's books* had something to do with it all. ib. III ch. 8 p. 317.

Writers like Blake and Shakespeare, like Stendhal and Dostoevsky, still have plenty to teach the modern scientific professional. Huxley, *Vulgarity* p. 20.

The ice arrived by motor-cycle just before her watch began. It was some comfort to have that definite thing to see to. Galsworthy, *Freelands* ch. 29 p. 373.

Ursula was happy to have somebody to look after.
Sinister Street p. 624.

(The Englishman), too, has a national ideal to set against the German. Edinb. Rev. April 1915.

In Henry I. Anselm had another kind of man to deal with. Gardiner and Mullinger, *Introd.* p. 52.

Of Wake, Archbishop from 1716 to 1737, Mr. Rowden, as is right, has nothing but good to say.

Times Lit. 16/3, 16.

Here we have to help us the works of Gildas, an absolutely contemporary writer, since he composed . . .¹⁾
Oman, Engl. Conquest p. 233.

548. When a noun-object is qualified by a stem with *to* as an adjunct of purpose, the meaning cannot be identified with the construction in which the noun becomes the object to the verb with stem as a single group. This is shown by the following example.

1) Note the word-order.

There is a great deal of difference between the eager man who wants to read a book and the tired man who wants a book to read. Daily News 30/8, 1906.

But when the leading verb has so little meaning as *to have* in the following sentences, the difference between the two constructions becomes very small.

But he had an amazing number of things to think about and the solicitor's office was the barest background for his chasing thoughts. Walpole, Fort. I ch. 10 p. 111.

All words, the weak and the strong, the definite and the vague, have their offices to perform in language. Raleigh, Style p. 21.

They know that England has you to thank for the fact that we are not at this moment preparing for war.

E. Ph. Oppenheim, A People's Man
ch. 21 p. 146.

Towards the solution of this question the present Dublin Week has a valuable lesson to contribute.

Times W. 29/8, 13.

'I have a favour to ask,' I stammered desperately.
Weyman, Red Robe ch. 1.

For criticism has also its part to play.

Times Lit. 9/12, 15.

To Have to 549. Cases such as those quoted in the preceding section make it easy to understand how a shifting in the order of words may come to take place, the verb and the stem being grouped together with the noun as the object to the group; thus *I have something to see to* may be turned into *I have to see to something*.

The group *to have to* expresses a duty or a necessity imposed by circumstances.

He is considerably sparing you the trouble of having to take a bath. Huxley, Vulgarity p. 4.

The construction is freely used when the verb is intransitive as well as transitive, and with passive groups.

In October the expedition sailed, but it had to make its way against adverse winds.

You have not surely to be reminded that it hurts them.

Meredith, Beauchamp ch. 27 p. 245.

It may have been worth while to pay the price for the new greatness of poetry that came in with the nineteenth century; but it is at any rate right to remember that there was a price, and that it has had to be paid.

Bailey, Johnson.

550. The two constructions of *to have* are sometimes contrasted, as in the sentence with *to want* in 548.

There are two kinds of speeches; there is the speech which a man makes when he has something to say, and the speech ... when he has to say something.

Such practised speakers as Dr. W. and Sir Lewis D. who had something to say which the Congress manifestly wanted to hear, had just cause of complaint.

Pilot, 24/10, 1903 p. 397/1.

The explanation of this is in the difference in the character of the adjuncts: in *had something to say* the stem is not an adjunct of purpose as in the contrasted construction. We have a similar contrast in the following sentence.

She had never expressed an opinion, and the inference was that she had no opinion to express.

Princess Priscilla's Fortnight 6.

551. The formal difference between the two constructions, *to have something to do* and *to have to do something*, depends exclusively on word-order. When the object must have front-position, as in attributive clauses (with a relative pronoun or a conjunction, or without) and in interrogative sentences, the context shows which is meant.

Such was the story which Commander Evans had to tell, and it stirred the sympathetic admiration of his hearers.

Times W. 23/5, 13.

... and oh, such lovely gentle peasants as she had to exercise her charity upon!

Upton Sinclair, *Oil!* XIV ch. 13 p. 356.

The only suggestion we have to make about this and similar good plans in other volumes is that they well merit a canvas lining, or else should be placed in a cover-pocket.

Athenaeum, 4/1, 13.

What I have to say is not for other ears.

Vachell, *Quinneys'* p. 194.

Annie heard the General's voice reply: "Let her come in at once" ... "Well, my little girl," said the General, "I am General Cornwallis¹⁾; what have you to say to me?" — "I want my cow."

In the last quotation the sentence with *to have* means '*What is it that you wish (want) to say to me?*' But the question '*What have you to say now?*' might also be put by a mother wishing a child to repeat a message she had given it. In that case *to have* would express the meaning treated of in 549.

552. There is no double construction when the noun- or pronoun-object is negative.

I have no letters to write to-night.

She had no suggestion to offer.

We had nothing to say to each other.

The English Protestants had no help to expect from their brethren on the Continent.

Gardiner and Mullinger, *Introd.* p. 116.

She seems respectable, and she does her work systematically. I have no fault to find with her, none whatever.

Baring-Gould, *Swaen* I p. 1.

The drinking public in general took no notice, but went on as before; they made compulsory restriction inevitable, and had only themselves to thank for it.

Times Lit. 25/1, 18.

1) Annie had asked to see the General.

553. In the following sentences there seems very little to choose between the construction used and the alternative one.

We had some miles to drive, even from the small station. Shorthouse, Inglesant, ch. 1.

What the state of our knowledge of the boy's home means is that he had his own way to make.

Times Lit. 7/5, 14.

... he did not doubt that but a fortnight would see him in a magnificent position. And then — the fortnight passed and he and Stephen had still their positions to discover — the money moreover was almost at an end; ... another fortnight would behold them penniless.

Walpole, Fort. II ch. 8 p. 221.

... there he resumed that struggle which is hell to the most of those who have it to fight.

Patterson, Stephen Compton ch. 4 p. 19.

554. The stem in this construction may also have its subject expressed, when necessary, by an adjunct with *for*.

Father St. Clare, after an interview with the King, told Inglesant that he had a mission for him to perform in London. Shorthouse, ch. 10 p. 115.

You are very young, but you are years older than most of your age, and your youth renders you all the more fit for the work I have for you to do.

ib. ch. 3 p. 43.

555. In the preceding sections *to have* was construed with the stem with *to*, evidently because a perfective form of the verb was required. When *to have* is taken in the sense of 'to experience', however, it naturally takes a verbal form that is not perfective: either the neutral stem without *to* or the participle, or the durative *ing*. We find consequently:

- (1) the modal preterite *had* with plain stem;
- (2) *to have* with an object and plain stem;
- (3) *to have* with an object and *ing*;
- (4) *to have* with an object and participle.

The first of these constructions hardly requires more than a single example: *We'd better keep a sharp look out here, said Ned* (Sweet, *Sp. Engl.* p. 56); see also 404. We need only treat here of the other three, in which *to have* can be used as a complete verbal system.

556. The following quotations illustrate *to Object and have* with an object and plain stem to express Plain Stem what may be defined generally as 'to experience', although here as in similar cases the verb comes to be an element of the whole group rather than an independent verb with a distinct meaning of its own.

But I am not sorry to have my place look its best.
Allen, Kentucky Cardinal ch. 4 p. 28.

I am fifty-one next year, and the only thing I ever had happen to me was seeing a man stop a runaway horse and cart. Jacobs, Dialstone Lane II.

For Mr. Gibson he had a warm respect, a strong personal liking, which he should be glad to have ripen into friendship, if there was time for it in this bustling world. Gaskell, Wives II p. 291.

And why not? I can't have Rosey know I have another wife living...

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 36 p. 385.

I would rather have lost them twice over than have had this happen. Hardy, Native IV ch. 2 p. 307.

I would not for worlds have you do so for my sake...
I would not for worlds that you should do that¹⁾.

Trollope, Framley ch. 29 p. 287

557. Sometimes this construction comes to express what may be defined as a perfective aspect, so that *have* is equivalent to 'get'. We might be inclined to

1) This last sentence shows that a subordinate clause is an alternative construction.

refer this meaning to the perfective sense of *to have* illustrated in 546. But it must be considered that the verb in this construction expresses the perfective meaning when forming a group with *will*, *get*, or a similar verb expressing purpose (*a*), or in a construction implying this, as in the stem with *to* (*b*). It seems all the more acceptable to consider the perfective sense of the construction as a special case of the preceding because it is often indifferent for the sense in which meaning the verb is taken.

a. This, indeed, is precisely what Mr. Burnet would have us think of the perturbing doctrines of Socrates.

Laird, p. 8.

He exposed ruthlessly the sort of peace these men would have us accept. Times W. 6/7, 17.

We would not have later generations know the whole agony of our own unhappy day. Times Lit. 9/11, 17.

He would have us consider what are the facts in history which really count, and he proves to us that we have not yet done with the Greeks.

Times Lit. 26/10, 17.

He talked his extremest Fabianism. He would have the Government control all railways, land, natural products.

Wells, Joan and Peter ch. 2 § 1.

Why would photographers not leave her alone? Why would theatrical managers have her accept boxes gratis which they could sell for money?

Bennett, Roll-Call I ch. 6 § 4.

b. I haven't done anything to have you send money for. Mackenzie, Sinister Street p. 974.

Object and Stem with to **558.** The perfective sense of the group may lead to the stem with *to* being used; but this construction is not current in spoken English.

In vain would a recent essayist on Peel have us to believe that fear was Peel's guiding motive.

Times W. 30/5, 1929.

Now, having achieved so capital a marriage, Caroline, worthy creature, was anxious that her sisters should not be less happy, and would have them to visit her in spite of her husband's protests.

Meredith, Harrington ch. 3 p. 17.

What, I'll have you to know...

Vachell, Quinneys' p. 259.

Object with Ing 559. The durative character of the group is emphasized in the object with ing construction (*a*). The ing may express repetition (*b*).

a. Nonsense, dear. I can't have you giving in to the silly fancy of being affected by the weather.

Gaskell, Wives III p. 73.

"You had better take care," said Percy Beaumont, "or you will have an offended father or brother pulling out a bowie-knife." H. James, Daisy Miller p. 138.

b. I will not have dirty old men like that coming into the house. Walpole, Fort. III ch. 5 § 2 p. 288.

See also 108 and 339 ff.

Object with Participle 560. The primary meaning of *to have* when construed with an object and participle is 'to experience'. This meaning is often quite clear when there is a personal subject (*a*). In other cases, however, the meaning becomes much vaguer (*b*). The object may be a provisional *it* (*c*).

a. "I have had my best chairs for fifteen years, and have never had them sat upon", sobbed an old lady in Sheffield County Court yesterday when claiming damages for injury to her furniture during removal. Daily News.

I deemed it no small matter to have all the various productions of the sea with which he was acquainted pointed out to me. Hugh Miller, My Schools ch. 4.

We think of religion as something moralized; we have even had it defined, inadequately enough, as 'morality touched with emotion'.

G. Murray, in Engl. Lit. and the Classics p. 10.

She had had a story taken by *The Green Volume.*
Walpole, Fort. II ch. 13 p. 156.

An eye-witness — a Mr. Frank Harris, butcher, of
82 Cheapside — had his veracious account journalistically
doctored. ib. II ch. 5 p. 193.

b. This again has been completely reformed in the
present grammar, in which the spoken language has had
its proper importance assigned to it.

Sweet, N. E. G. Preface p. X.

Recent studies have made a change. Bohemian history
has had much new light thrown upon it.

Times Lit. 23/3, 16.

c. He knew that he had found her questions difficult
to answer and that he had had it driven in upon him
that it was not really because she was interested in the
subtleties of his art that she inquired...

Walpole, Fort. III ch. 8 p. 317.

561. The construction with the participle seems to be
used in order to enable the writer to make the psycholog-
ical subject the grammatical subject of the sentence.

Pope has three chapters devoted to his genius as
exhibited in his character, his poetry, and his optimism.
(instead of: Three chapters are devoted to the g. of
P. etc.). Athenaeum, 1/2, 13.

I have had my imagination deeply thrilled lately by
reading about the discovery in America of the bones of
a fossil animal called the *Diplodocus*.

Benson, Thread of Gold.

No new version can have its goodness finally assessed
at first; obvious badness is somewhat more easily deter-
mined. Omond, Essays III 72.

Once more we have Sterne set before us — this time
by the deft hand of Mr. Walter Sichel.

Everyman 29/11, 12.

Not far from the scene of the disaster (a munitions
explosion) there were five cotton mills. (One of the mills
was set on fire)... The other mills had their windows
shattered. Times W. 22/6, 17.

We are no longer children, but men: . . . who have had our hearts bruised and cover them with armour . . .
Meredith, Harrington ch. 41 p. 420.

The aristocracy to whom the leadership of the state now fell had a twofold task imposed upon them.
Goodspeed, History.

Never mind, I won't have Miles led into any more mischief.
Montgomery, Misunderstood.

I was myself for seven years at Eton and for nearly four years at Cambridge, and I never had a piece of English writing criticised, as my Greek and Latin exercises were criticised, by any of my instructors.

Benson, J. of Engl. Studies I 151.

The Village told how Farmer Blaize had his rick feloniously set fire to.
Meredith, R. Feverel.

562. As in the case of the object with plain stem the construction with an object and participle may denote 'to cause' in certain contexts.

I want to have these books bound.

In the meantime the Mayor was having the prisoner's apartment searched for treasonable papers.

563. The following sentences seem to be best interpreted with *to have* in the sense of 'to hold, or possess.'

It was the man who had "Elinor" and "Bessie" tattooed on his arm.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 44 p. 480.

Balked of what mattered most on earth to her, she grieved and pined until all her strength was drained and misery had her numbed.

Julia Peterkin, Scarlet Sister Mary ch. 14 p. 130.

Perfect 564. In 548 f. it has been shown how a mixed noun-and-verb group may lead to a purely verbal construction. The same has happened in the case of the object with participle construction after *to have*. The

intermediate stage may be seen in sentences like the following.

I've heard most of our own great speakers and a good many of the Englishmen, but Samara has them beaten to a frazzle.

E. Ph. Oppenheim, Gabriel Samara II ch. 1 p. 189.

The baby stirred and wailed dismally; in a moment Carola had it caught up and pressed to her heart.

Marjorie Bowen, The Quest of Lory I ch. 6 p. 45.

Besides, this unseemly war will be over in six months. The Germans will have us beaten by then.

Ernest Raymond, Tell England II ch. 2 p. 187.

Compare these with the purely verbal group in the following sentences.

He had packed his bag in readiness, and now he fetched it... Walpole, Fort. I ch. 12 p. 138.

Mr. W. H. Davies has won his place; he is a writer who is read, a singer who never lacks listeners.

Times Lit. 23/9, 1920.

565. The combination of *to have* with a participle of a transitive or intransitive verb corresponds in many respects to the *perfect* of several Indogermanic languages, and the term is for that reason applied to the group in English. Thus we speak of a perfect in *I have loaded my revolver*, but of an object with participle in *I have my revolver loaded*¹⁾. The difference is, of course, real:

1) The difference is generally shown in English (not invariably, as we shall see below) by the word-order. When this is not the case, as in Dutch, a misunderstanding may arise, if exceptionally. The following actual conversation between two examiners in a railway carriage may illustrate this.

A. "Ik heb de stukken getypt." (I have the papers type-written, or I have type-written the papers).

B. "Dat zal u heel wat tijd gekost hebben." (That will have taken you a good deal of time).

A. "O nee, ik bedoel dat ik ze getypt van de voorzitter gekregen heb." (Oh no, I mean that I have received them type-written from the chairman.)

the latter construction expresses a state as the result of an action, the former expresses an action considered as the source of a state.

566. The perfect is used to express the bearing of a past action or state on the present time. This is the most frequent function of the perfect (*resultative perfect*).

Staffordshire rivers have remained virgin of keels to this day. Bennett, Old W. T. I ch. 1 § 1.

The recurrence of the Italian national festival of *Venti Settembre* reminds us that half a century has now passed away since "Italy entered Rome." Times Lit. 16/9, 20.

Canon Ollard, as we have said, has secured contributors of reputation. Two especially eminent men have died since their articles were written — the late Bishop of Salisbury ... and Dr. James Gairdner. Athenaeum, 16/11, 12.

The time seems near, if it has not actually arrived, when the chastened sublimity of a moor, a sea, or a mountain will be all of nature that is absolutely in keeping with the moods of the more thinking among mankind. Hardy, Native I ch. 1 p. 5.

Half a lifetime of additional reading and writing, and of ruminating over what I *have read and have written*, *has brought* some general conclusions clearer and clearer to my mind, the implicit growing explicit¹⁾.

Vernon Lee, Handling of Words p. VII.

567. The resultative perfect is naturally found *passim* in prefaces; quotations would be superfluous. It may also be observed that the result in the case of transitive verbs is to be observed in the object, in the case of intransitive verbs in the subject. The action, occurrence, or state referred to by the group-perfect may be thought of as continuing into the present time; this is only a

1) In sentences with more than one perfect italics denote the groups that illustrate the statement.

special case of its resultative use, which is often distinguished by a special term: the *continuative perfect*.

We have lived here for the last ten years.

Ever since the so-called settlement of last year's national dispute, railwaymen have gradually become more and more convinced that their leaders committed a grave blunder in sending them back to work when they did.

568. The resultative perfect expresses a similar meaning when the form depends upon a main clause referring to the future. In this case it denotes the bearing of an action that is thought of as occurring at a future point of time.

Wait till I have finished my letter.

The feeling thus aroused in a time of peril needs to be fostered and deepened within our own borders when the clouds have passed away. Times W. 3/1, 13.

It is the instrument that is given to you and if, when you come to die, you know that, for brief moments, you *have heard*, and that what you *have heard* you *have written*, Life *has been justified*. (Reference lost).

569. The resultative perfect may express an *iterative* aspect. In this meaning the link with the past naturally becomes stronger than in the examples given until now, because the result is not thought of as connected with the present time.

The other species (of woodpecker) have the same habit of drumming on one tree. I *have noticed* it in the small spotted or banded, woodpecker; and *have observed* that invariably after he *has drummed* two or three times the female *has come* flying to him from some other part of the wood, and the two birds *have* then both together *uttered* their loud chirping notes and *flew away*.

Hudson, Hampshire Days ch. 1 p. 12.

As further showing how barbaric ideas persist in the heart of civilisation, there is an overwhelming feeling against hiring men bearing the reprobated names as

hands for the boats in the herring-fishing season; and when they *have been hired* before their names were known, their wages *have been refused* if the season *has been* a failure.

Clododd, Tom Tit Tot (Duckworth, 1898) p. 118.

"Bring your chair close up to the bed — so — like that. You have never come to sit in here before, Peter, do you know that?"

"Yes, mother" . . .

"You have come in before because you have been told to. To-day you were not told — why did you come?" Walpole, Fort. I ch. 8 3 p. 91.

570. The perfect can also express an action or occurrence thought of in a time that is present, but regarded as a whole, not in its result only, so that the past is included. This perfect is used when we want to consider or discuss the action or occurrence; it is distinctly different from the narrative past tense. This function may be called the *declaratory perfect*.

London has been repeatedly attacked by squadrons of German æroplanes during the last few nights.

Times W. 5/10, 17.

Prince Henry has decided to travel to Tokio by the overland route. Twice already he *has visited* Japan, in 1898 and 1900.

Standard, 16/8, 12.

The motor has relegated the cabriolet to the coach-house long ago¹⁾.

Daily Sketch 22/8, 1912.

571. The preterite of *to have* can be used in the same way as the present to form a group with the participle; the combination is called the *preterite perfect*. The preterite perfect, like the simple preterite, can be used as a past tense and as a modal preterite (29). We can distinguish the *past perfect* and the *modal preterite perfect* accordingly.

1) van der Gaaf, *Engl. Studien* 62 p. 403 f.

Past Perfect **572.** The past perfect can express the same meanings as the present perfect, but with reference to a past time. The following examples are arranged so as to bring out the parallelism.

(1) resultative (566).

The other snarled aloud into a savage laugh; and the next moment, with extraordinary quickness, he had unlocked the door and disappeared into the house.

Stevenson, Dr. Jekyll.

The Norman Conquest of 1066 brought England into close contact with Europe. Our ancestors had suffered from isolation. Watson, Engl. Church p. 36.

He alighted at Liverpool Street, however, quite conscientiously secure that he had not missed the criminal so far. Chesterton, Innocence of Father Brown p. 4.

(2) continuative (567).

For many days now he had lain in bed in a room exuding silver, crimson, and electric light.

Galsworthy, Caravan p. 3.

(3) resultative (568).

Hence the great Valentin, when he set out to find Flambeau, was perfectly well aware that his adventures would not end when he had found him. Chesterton, ib. p. 3.

He would never, until his own end had come, forget that evening. Walpole, Fort. I ch. 8 § 4 p. 95.

(4) iterative (569).

Instead of flying to her friendly lap for that protection which I had so often experienced when I have been weak and timid, I shrank back terrified and bewildered to my bed... Charles Lamb in Sel. Short Stories I p. 58.

(5) declaratory (570).

The morning the pony had been tried the Earl *had been* so pleased that he had almost forgotten his gout.

Burnett, Fauntleroy.

The house *had belonged* to a family of some note, whose heirs had outstripped their fortunes.

Lytton, Eugene Aram ch. 3.

For some time past it *had been assumed* that the following British and French merchant vessels, which have been long overdue, had been sunk by a German raider ... Definite information has now been received from Pernambuco confirming this assumption.

Times W. 26/1, 17.

Modal Preterite Perfect 573. The preterite perfect is used in the same function as the simple preterite of modesty; see 36.

"I thought," said she, presently, "you had told me your name was John?"

Temple Thurston, City I ch. 8.

One would think, to hear him talk, that those who are fighting for England had left behind nothing that was worth fighting for except himself.

Times Lit. 20/1, 16.

It might, perhaps, have been better if these (i. e. these additions, by the translator) had been distinguished by brackets or initialed.

Athenaeum, 28/8, 15.

Comradeship is at the most only one half of human life; the other half is Love, a thing so different that one might fancy it had been made for another universe.

Chesterton, What's Wrong, p. 90.

574. The preterite perfect is also used as an irrealis; see 37 f. It occurs in:

(1) adverb clauses.

They were not brother and sister, but they loved each other as much as if they had been.

Andersen, Fairy Tales.

Had he been able to consult it he would have found that it contained a wealth of materials for his purpose.

Mod. Lang. Notes, Nov. 1912.

(2) attributive clauses, in literary English chiefly.

There was a little art in her, that had perhaps found a medium had she been born to a different environment.

Phillpotts, Beacon, book I ch. 6.

(3) object clauses depending upon *I wish* or *we wish* as the main clause.

We wish that Mr. Macdonald had touched upon Bret Harte's literary influence. Times Lit. 3/2, 16.

I have received many messages, of pleasure in, and even gratitude for, the book, which leave me in no sort of doubt that it was worth writing; though I wish with all my heart that it had been worthier of its motive, and had been better able to communicate the delight of my visions and dreams. A. C. Benson.

575. When the past perfect is completed by an object clause with a predicative past tense (*a*), or with a stem with *to* (*b*), or an *ing* (*c*), the perfect expresses a contrast with the present. When the verb in the perfect refers to the future, the construction contrasts the present time with some point of time in the past that was future at the time referred to (*d*).

a. I am sure that Theocritus has handled these scenes with an art altogether transcending that of his rivals, but I *had thought that they were* the fruit of his own genius and invention. It is a pity that Herodas should have disabused us of a pleasing illusion, seeing that he has given us so little in exchange for it.

Tyrrel in Calverley p. XVII.

b. A deliberate student of prosody, on which he *had intended to leave* a treatise, but did not.

Saintsbury, Manual p. 303.

The circumstance needs explanation. Are we to assume that Munich is more intimately in the confidence of Vienna than Berlin? That has happened before now, but we *had not supposed it to be the case* at present.

Times W. 4/12, 14.

c. I *had intended translating* all or nearly all these Idylls into blank verse... But I found that other metres had their special advantages. Calverley p. XXXI.

It *would have been* pleasanter and easier *attacking* later... Times W. 12/10, 17.

d. I had hoped that in this twentieth century one would not have found any of enlightened culture making such an unjust and foolish statement.

C. Robertson in Everyman 13/12, 12.

Complex Perfect
Groups

576. In the sentences illustrating the perfect we have quoted until now the perfect has almost invariably been a combination of the present or past tense of *have* with a participle. It may happen, however, that the perfect is combined with a passive group (type *has been done*). Another form of the predicative perfect is the combination with auxiliaries that take a plain stem (type *will have come*) and the corresponding passive (type *will have been done*). A very few examples will suffice.

The method of *Macbeth* has been, as it were, absorbed by that of the modern novel; the method of *Britannicus* still rules the stage.

Lytton Strachey, Books and Characters p. 9.

The object of this essay is, . . . Whether the attempt succeed or fail, some important general questions of literary doctrine will have been discussed; and, in addition, at least an effort will have been made to vindicate a great reputation.

ib. p. 5 f.

Non-predicative
Perfect

577. The perfect is also used in the non-predicative verbal forms: the stem with *to* (type *to have done*) and the ing (type *having done*); and in the complex groups corresponding to those of 576 (types *to have been done* and *having been done*). Examples of these groups have been given when dealing with the non-predicative verbal forms, but the meanings of these groups and their relation to the simple forms must be treated briefly here.

578. The meaning of the non-predicative group-perfect is perhaps chiefly resultative, as in the following sentences.

He seems to have worked hard.

We shall hope to have passed A. by 7 P. M.

To have been accused was very bad; but now it seemed to be the opinion of every one that the verdict must be against the man.

Trollope, Last Chron. ch. 61.

His motive is not ignoble, and his success in life will be *to have put* all his manifold resources at the service of the toilers, the thinker, and the student — in the broadest sense, *to have saved* them trouble.

Baker, Uses of Libr. p. 3.

By consistently stressing the psychological aspects of primitive religion I hope to have contributed something to a closer alliance of two sister sciences that too frequently have pursued their paths in mutual neglect.

Lowie, Primitive Religion, Pref. p. v.

His heart was full. A God there must be somewhere to have given him all this splendour — a splendour surely for him to work upon.

Walpole, Fort. I ch. 12 p. 146.

To have overburdened the book with a large number of details would only confuse the student and render him unable ‘to see the wood for the trees.’

Wright, Elem. M E Grammar p. IX.

579. In the following cases we have a parallel to the declaratory perfect.

He is said to have been an honest man.

He pretended to have walked as fast as he could.

Cynewulf was, in the opinion of a large number of critics, a Northumbrian, but some think him to have been Mercian. Stopford Brooke in Chambers’s Cyclop. I.

580. The perfect stem is frequent with a predicative verb in a past tense to express the meaning discussed in 575.

But tell me; has he left this neighbourhood? I wanted to have seen him. Gaskell, Wives II p. 233.

I had hoped to have had a very remarkable diagram prepared by the Admiralty — I may have it before I sit down — showing the losses of shipping, Allied and British. Lloyd George, rep. Times W. 28/12, 17.

He stepped inside, and the cab rolled off. "Were you going to have walked?" she asked presently.

Temple Thurston, City I ch. 15.

"Oh, there's no doubt he was clever enough to have been a doctor. Only of course with his family he had to be a soldier." Mackenzie, Sylvia p. 266.

A glorious vision to the youth, who embraced it as a flower of beauty, and read not a feature. There were curious features of colour in her face for him to have read. Meredith, Feverel ch. 15 p. 98.

"I did not know Lord Fane was at the Abbey, grandpapa. When did he come?"

The old man rubbed his eyes wearily. "I — I did hear. Yes, he was to have arrived last night. I thought I told you. No? Then I forgot it. I remember now. Yes, he was to come last night."

"It is evident he *has* come!" remarked the girl, with a touch of humour that lit up her dark eyes.

Garvice, Staunch as a Woman.

We should like to have seen the secondary school element more fully represented. Times Ed. S. 7/9, 16.

How could he go away? How could he desert his people? It was impossible... Sir Evelyn Baring thought differently. In his opinion it was General Gordon's plain duty to have come away from Khartoum.

Lytton Strachey, in Engl. 19th Cent. II p. 88.

His first intention was to have printed a collection of letters, chiefly of the time of Elizabeth and James the First... Ellis, Original Letters Pref. p. V.

To have been killed in battle would have been a better fate for the brave young soldier than that which was reserved for him. Mem. Verney Fam. II p. 344.

581. The modal function of the perfect stem also occurs with a predicative present tense.

Those of us who feel that we are clever enough to have succeeded at the Bar, and regret that we did not choose to pursue the fugitive prizes of that honourable and profitable calling, can generally derive some comfort from the perusal of the reminiscences of a successful barrister.

Times Lit. 17/5, 18.

582. The perfect stem is occasionally found in the same function when non-fulfilment is already indicated by the predicative verb. This double perfect stem is generally disapproved of by critics.

And, when I remember all that this man (viz. Charles II) did, and all that he did not do, all that he was, and all that he would have chosen to have been, I am not at all sure that the second Charles Stuart was a more fortunate man than the first.

Cecil Chesterton, *Everyman*.

Mr. H. J. White is an Australian and he has written far too much. At least, he would have done better to have published a very small selection of these verses.

Academy, 17/8, 12.

Molly did not like the idea of going out for a tête-a-tête walk with Mr. Preston; yet she pined for a little fresh air, would have liked to have seen the gardens, and have looked at the Manor house from different aspects.

Gaskell, *Wives* I ch. 14 p. 241.

A notoriety which he would have done much to have avoided was forced upon him.

Oppenheim, *A People's Man* ch. 27.

But Mrs. Ambrose seemed to be obtuse, and the vicar would have been the last to have spoken of his suspicions, even to the wife of his bosom.

Crawford, *Lonely Parish* ch. 9.

He would have given much money to have been spared the experience.

Bennett, *Old W. Tale* IV ch. 1 § 3.

583. The result of the constructions described and illustrated in 575 and 580 ff. is that the meaning defined

can be expressed either by a predicative perfect completed by a clause or stem with a simple form, or by a predicative simple verbal form and a perfect stem: *I hoped to have seen him* or *I had hoped to see him*. The type *I had hoped to have seen him* may be considered a blending of the two others.

584. The functions of the complex ing with the auxiliary *to have* (the perfect: *having done*; and the perfect passive: *having been done*) have been treated in the chapter on the ing (137 f.). The meaning of these forms is parallel to those of the complex stem. Here, as in the case of the stem, the resultative meaning seems to predominate (*a*), but the modal meaning of 575 and 580 ff. is current, too (*b*).

a. He acknowledged having organized the plot, and armed the conspirators. Times Lit. 17/10, 1929.

Having dealt, so far as is possible, with the social organisation of the early English kingdoms, we must now turn to their political organisation.

Oman, Engl. Conquest p. 366.

b. See 575 *c*.

585. The perfect ing is chiefly found in prepositional adjuncts, in free (including absolute) adjuncts, and in objects; for examples, see 137 f. Verbs expressing an act of memory take both the simple and the perfect ing, whereas they can take a perfect stem with *to* only: *I remember hearing, having heard*, but *I remember to have heard*.

Peter was tremendously excited. He could never remember being quite so excited before.

Walpole, Fort. I ch. 1 § 2 p. 10.

I can remember turning round to stare at the pneumatic tyres of a bicycle from here, yes, and even at a young man in a Homburg hat.

Compton Mackenzie, Old Men of the Sea ch. 1 p. 11 f.

An example of a perfect ing (with *recollect*) is to be found in 137 a; the simple ing is illustrated in 120 (p. 100).

586. The use of these various forms is not arbitrary, of course. The meaning clearly varies according to the form used. The difference between the simple and the perfect ing can be brought out most conveniently by comparing the difference between the predicative verbal forms: the past tense and the perfect. The simple forms in the first two sentences of the preceding section mean: *remember that he ever was so excited before, remember that he turned round.* In the example of 137 a, with the perfect ing, on the contrary, the equivalent would be: *recollect that I have been admired* (or, in the reported style of the text: *that she had been admired*).

The reason why the stem must be in the perfect form is that the stem serves as an adjunct of result here.

Character of the Group-perfect 587. The group-perfect, like the group-passive (489), is a separable group, whence we find two coordinated participles with the same form of *to have*, as the predicative verb, or with a non-predicative *have*, as the leading member of the group.

He *had looked* at his watch and *seen* that it was near two in the morning.

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 43 p. 477.

Mankind *has* always *desired* to know what was going on outside its immediate surroundings, and *wished*, when it suited, to tell what was going on within.

Robbins, *The Press* p. 7.

I can't think what I should *have done*, or where I should *have gone*, if Mr. Brent *had not come out* of the bank and *seen me*. Marie Connor Leighton,

The Mystery of the Three Fingers ch. 2 p. 31.

"I've been engaged to him a year and he ought to *have sent* me the ring long ago, and not *waited* till a week before the wedding." ib. ch. 1 p. 10.

She would *have listened* to them and not herself *talked*, but Gerald did not allow her to be silent.

W. B. Maxwell, *Gabrielle* p. 96.

Perfect-Present **588.** A group-perfect sometimes becomes a specially close group because it develops a special meaning. Such group-perfектs are *to have done* and *to have got*. The connection with the action that has preceded may be completely gone, so that they have the meaning of simple present tenses; we may call them perfect-presents in this function¹⁾. *To have got* is not only used with a noun object, but also with a stem with *to* and with a participle.

When my mother died, I determined to have done with teaching. Gissing, *Odd Women* ch. 3.

I have got a very good knife; you may just try if it is of use.

Show me your purse; what money have you got?

"Well, I must say good-bye, Miss Green, I've got my sermon to prepare." Punch, 2/3 1889 p. 107/2.

At that rate I shall be up first after all. — Oh no, you won't. I've only got to do up my collar, if I can find that blessed stud, and put on my coat.

Collinson, *Spoken English* p. 38.

Wij vounli :got tū aask lijv fə juw tə -kam ən sij mij,
ən ðə bingz dan. Sweet, *Spoken Engl.* p. 51.

How much money have you got left?

589. *To have got* is not in all respects identical in meaning with the simple *have*. It invariably refers to the present moment, and cannot express the iterative aspect; it could not be used, consequently, in a case like the following: *Every year he has a month's holiday*. See 569.

1) They can be used as ordinary perfects: I have got out of the way of smoking cigarettes and am getting into the way of smoking a pipe (Collinson, *Spoken English* p. 26).

It might be supposed that we have the same group in a sentence like this; *Have you got your passport visaed?* (Collinson, ib. p. 48); but a comparison with a similar sentence containing the simple *get* is enough to show that the construction is not the same: *I want some passport photos. Can you get them developed, toned and printed by three this afternoon?* (ib. p. 48).

**Perfect and Object-
with-Participle
Compared**

590. The perfect of transitive verbs and the verb *to have* with an object and participle are usually distinguished formally by their word-order: *He had pointed out the difficulty to him* and *He had the difficulty pointed out to him*. But it may happen, as in the case of the verb with the stem (551), that the object must have front-position, so that the meaning must be made out from the situation. It is the situation that makes it certain that we have an object with complex stem in the following sentences (*a*); also in the case under *b*, in which the object follows the complete verbal group.

a. How on earth was he to find words to say that which he now wished *to have said?*

Trollope, Framley ch. 39 379.

In the pause that followed her words, Mrs. Sawbridge appeared from the garden smiling with a determined amiability, and bearing a great bunch of the best roses (which Sir Isaac hated *to have picked*) in her hands.

Wells, Harman ch. 3 § 7 p. 73.

These beds were the only sign of any attempt at gardening to be seen, . . . , and *these I had sown* with ipomaea, the whole eleven . . . ; being entirely ignorant of the quantity of seed necessary, I bought ten pounds of it and *had it sown* not only in the eleven beds but round nearly every tree. Elizabeth, Solitary Summer.

b. Thus by a process of bribery, cajolery, and threats the working classes are *to have thrust* upon them a re-

actionary system of education which would secure a more efficient system of child slavery, while the parent and the Labour world are to be kept quiet by the policy of small bribes. Times Ed. S. 28/2, 18.

Thomas Mann's "Novelle" is a triumph of technique. In its pages we *have shown us the heart of child awaking to girlhood, to puberty.*

Times Lit. 17/3, 1927 p. 178/2.

591. When a perfect of *to have* is construed with an object and participle, there can be no doubt about the construction, even if it is not shown by the order of words.

The Scottish members of Parliament have had sent to them a memorandum from the Business Committee of the General Council of the University of Edinburgh, protesting against... Everyman, 6/12, 12.

What but spiritual solaces could assist me to live after the degradations I have had heaped on me?

Meredith, Harrington ch. 44 p. 446.

592. The difference between the perfect and the object with participle may be shown by the phonetic form of the verb. For it is natural that *to have* as an auxiliary of the perfect should have very weak stress, and this weakening very commonly goes so far that the vowel is completely lost.

In his Primer of Spoken English Sweet distinguishes strong-stressed [hæv] 'must', from weak-stressed -[hæv] 'cause, let', and from weak-stressed [(h)əv] as an auxiliary of the perfect.

Juwl hæv -tə -hæv -jə hə :kat.

Sweet, Hist. Engl. S. § 45.

But compare the following.

I've a proposition to lay before you, Joe.

Vachell, Quinneys' p. 194.

See also 600.

Perfect and Present **593.** The perfect, being a present of *to have* with a participle, is naturally a present tense with regard to time. But it looks upon the present in connection with the past, treating the present as it were retrospectively. This is well brought out by the following passage in William de Morgan's *Joseph Vance* (ch. 14 p. 124):

I made up my mind that I would ask Miss Lossie what she thought on this point as I walked along the road to Poplar Villa. But here was a disappointment! Miss Lossie had gone to Mrs. Spencer's at Hampstead to stay over Monday and had taken Master Joseph. The Doctor was in his Library — he always was. Anne suggested what I hesitated to ask, that she should tell the Doctor I had come. I said "Please, yes" — because the expression "You have come" revealed to me that I was expected. Whereas the expression "You are here" would not have done so. What nice phases there are in language! — I was told, after application above, to go up to the Library.

The following passage, too, may show the character of the perfect as a present tense.

But the Artist's wife declined to fall in with current opinion about the picture. "I suppose it's very beautiful, and all that," said she. "Only don't ask *me* to admire it! I never *have* liked that sort of thing, and I never *shall* like it.") de Morgan, A Likely Story ch. 1 p. 21.

594. The present and the perfect are often contrasted; the contrast is, of course, not one of time but of aspect: the perfect considers the action or occurrence retrospectively, the present in its actual aspect.

Change has been, and is, the breath of our existence and the condition of our growth.

Pollard, Hist. of England ch. 1 p. 8.

1) Italics in the original.

It was this knowledge that made me idle and so undifferent to saving; and it was this small income that has been, and is in a commercial sense, the ruin of my life. Davies, Super-Tramp ch. 17 p. 134.

In England they have always existed, and do so still. Low, British Constitution p. 18.

It follows from what has been said that the perfect is not used to refer to the future (on an apparent use of this character, compare 568). We may say, therefore, that the perfect is more truly a *present* tense than the simple present.

595. The aspect of the perfect and past perfect with *to have* can also be expressed by means of an adverb adjunct: *by now*.

I said I never drank before lunch and tried to make up my mind to leave them. I *was by now* so anxious to be accepted for this expedition that I could almost have brought myself to ask humbly if something could not be managed about the cabin.

Mackenzie, The Old Men of the Sea ch. 5 p. 67.

In this sentence *was by now* is equivalent to *had become* (not to *had been*, clearly).

Perfect and Preterite **596.** The difference between the resultative perfect and the narrative past tense is very clear, in spite of the circumstance that both forms refer to something in the past.

Every one who has been to school and still remembers what he was taught there, knows that Rügen is the biggest island Germany possesses. Eliz. in Rügen.

The extreme section of Indian opinion asserted some time ago a clear ascendancy over it (viz. over the Indian National Congress), and have retained it ever since.

The Mail 22/9, 1920.

The Sultan has sent a message of congratulation to Nazim which was received with cheers by the troops.

ib. Nov. 1912.

The "Street of Adventure," as Fleet Street was recently called, has a history which, it has been said, no man can write. *Athen.* 28/9, 12.

During the last few days nothing was done to insure peace in the coal industry, but preparations for a strike have gone steadily on. *Daily News* 17/2, 12.

How good *Punch* is this week! One of the very best I have ever read — cuts and letter-press. Who wrote *A City Idyll*? It is inimitably funny. *Ainger*, in *Life* p. 136.

But though it (*viz.* the proposal) has been withdrawn, it was none the less put forward; indeed it is more than possible that the appearance of the criticism was the cause of its withdrawal. *Pilot* 22/8, 1903.

The material (i. e. for the present book) is found in logbooks, Consular letters, and whaling account books, which have scarcely been looked at before for research purposes. *Times Lit.* 29/11, 1928 p. 934/4.

Compare the following examples both of the perfect and of the past tense.

Betty. You're a marvel! How in the world did you manage not to?

Alice. Not to what?

Betty. Not to hear about my row with Muriel Wister.

Alice. Oh, I (very slightly embarrassed) — I didn't manage not to.

Betty (surprised). You *have* heard about it?

Alice. Well, I (her embarrassment is a shade deeper perhaps) — I heard it.

Chapin, *New Morality*, Brit. Pl. p. 536.

"I have met you before," he said suddenly. "You don't remember." Walpole, *Fort.* II ch. 22 p. 167.

On the other hand, the perfect would be impossible in the following sentence, because the writer refuses to accept any connection between the past occurrence and the present moment.

For instance, I can assert that 'this man is vulgar. The fact that he is of good family and *was educated* at

the right place makes no difference. He is vulgar intrinsically.' Huxley, *Vulgarity* p. 3.

597. The iterative (*a*) and the declaratory (*b*) perfect are more nearly related to the past tense, but the essential difference remains.

a. That was one of the moments of my life when I have tasted exquisite joy.

Gissing, *Ryecroft* I ch. 9 p. 24.

b. We now know that the first dramatic lesson, which I have already quoted, many years ago, in these columns, was sound. Dr. Saleeby, *Pall Mall Gazette*.

One should never go again to a place where one has been happy.

W. Somerset Maugham, *Circle*, Brit. Pl. p. 630.

It is very easy to jump to conclusions like these; but Sir Edwin Pears, who is a judge of "atrocities," and has not spared the Turkish soldier in the past, measures his words carefully when he writes of these recent doings.

Athenaeum 7/10, 11.

In the past our Army has been a separate profession with a peculiar glitter and pride of its own.

Times Lit. 5/8, 15.

The first of these (books or manuscripts) has been lost, but it has lately been discovered at Cambridge.

Stopford Brooke, *Primer*.

King Manoel, who has been playing lawn tennis at Felixstowe every day during the tournament there, having games among others with Mrs. Hilliard and Mrs. Lambert Chambers, presented prizes to the winners at the close of the tournament. *Daily Mail*, 20/8, 12.

598. The perfect and the preterite as a narrative past tense are often used in one sentence. This is apt to bring out the difference of meaning very clearly (*a*). Not infrequently we find all three forms contrasted: the simple present, the group-perfect, and the past tense. These cases may help to show that the contrast between the

first two is one of aspect, whereas the contrast between them and the past tense is one of time (*b*).

a. "Ah well," an American visitor is said to have soliloquized, on the site of the battle of Hastings, "it is but a little island and it *has often been conquered*." We have in these few pages to trace the evolution of a great empire, which *has often conquered* others, out of the little island which *was often conquered* itself.

Pollard, History of England p. 1.

Unwittingly Norman and Angevin despotism *made* an English nation out of Anglo-Saxon tribes, as English despotism *has made* a nation out of Irish septs, and will make another out of the hundred races and religions of our Indian Empire. ib. ch. 2 p. 33.

b. The hundred as a geographical division remained, but the hundred court gradually lost its importance. Not so the shire or county which *was*, and always *has been*, and still *is*, the chief unit of local government.

Low, British Const. p. 7.

Past Perfect and Preterite **599.** Both the past perfect and the preterite when used as a narrative past tense express a past action, occurrence, or state; naturally enough, for the past perfect has a past tense *had* for one of the elements of the group. The past perfect, however, expresses the meanings of the present perfect transferred to a point of time in the past. When the past time from which the action or occurrence is regarded has once been mentioned, it often occurs that the speaker goes on with a simple past tense, without showing, consequently, that he thinks of them in connection with a preceding period. Thus we can say: *He went away after I had given him the necessary instructions*; but also: *He went away after I gave him the necessary instructions*. The past perfect expresses the break between the two actions, the preterite does not.

This is the history of Silas Marner, until the fifteenth year after he *came* to Raveloe. Eliot, Silas Marner ch. 2.

After Miss Matty *went* to bed I lighted the candle again. Mrs. Gaskell, Cranford, p. 286.

After he *left* Stourbridge he spent two years at home in desultory reading. Bailey, Johnson, p. 89.

Even Kate was not pleased either with the company or the frivolous course of things in her friend's house, where matters had changed considerably since Kate *was* there some six months before her marriage.

Patterson, Stephen Compton, p. 252.

It was understood that after the railway was *completed* they would return to Petersburg. But the Caucasus is a wonderful country. It grows upon one, and holds one by a thousand invisible links. Thirty years later my father still lived on the same spot where he *settled* first. A Mere Woman, p. 2.

Shortly after the war *was* over, he was murdered by the Persians among whom he had taken refuge.

Goodspeed, History p. 178.

That Nurse *was* ever young Michael could not bring himself to believe. Sinister Street p. 11.

It *was* dark for some time before Mr. Farman ended his long flight. Ill. London News 4/9, 1901.

To Have and To Be in Verbal Groups Compared

600. It has been shown that *to have* as a member of a verbal group may be quite subordinated in meaning so that it has hardly any independent existence, and loses its phonetic independence as well (592). This may happen when the verb is used with a nominal adjunct, as in *I have a tooth-ache*, etc. but even when it may be said to have some meaning of its own, as in the following sentence.

She'd a good home, and everything she could wish for. Galsworthy, Man of Property ch. 3 p. 56.

Compare also these sentences in Collinson's *Spoken English* p. 64 f.

aiv ən ɔfəl tuþeik. — ai hæv ə holou tuþ.

601. In all these respects *to have* resembles *to be*. Both verbs can also form groups with a participle which are occasionally identical in meaning. When *to be* is used with the participle of a mutative intransitive verb it may serve as a copula linking the subject with a predicative verbal adjective (55); but *to be* and the participle may also form a group with the same meaning as the perfect of the verb, i. e. the group with *to have* (56).

The verbal group with *to be* is chiefly found with verbs of motion (*a*), but not exclusively (*b*). The construction seems to be disappearing; one objection to it is that it may often be taken as a copula with a verbal adjective.

a. When she became conscious of externals it was dusk. The furze-rick was finished; the men had gone.
Hardy, Native II ch. 1 p. 131.

She was stouter. Although always plump, her figure had been comely, with a neat, well-marked waist. But now the shapeliness had gone. Bennett, Old W. T. II ch. 3 § 1.

Clara also had passed most of the day there, with a few intervals at her own home; but now Clara was gone, and Janet too had gone.

Bennett, Clayhanger III ch. 17 § 4.

But the clerk had left it in the inner sanctum. He would get it, and disappeared to do so. When he came back with it, however, he found its owner had gone, saying never mind, it didn't matter.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 1 p. 2.

In such contrast the heath wore the appearance of an instalment of night which had taken up its place before its astronomical hour was come. Hardy, Native I ch. 1 p. 3.

Did you tell him whom you were come to see?

Hardy, Ironies.

A hard and ugly look was now come into the big clean-shaven face. Parker, Judgment House p. 100.

b. The truth is, I was begun to think uncomfortably of the dedication. Barrie, Little White Bird ch. 26.

Mr. Winter was retired. His money, sufficient to

retire upon the interest accruing from it, he had hoarded in Hastings, and there Ruth had been educated.

Niven, Porcelain Lady p. 12.

"I am become calm in beholding him now."

Eliot, Deronda, ch. 67.

The journey is as yet but begun.

Peterson, Fate and the Watchers (1917) p. 7.

In the following pair of sentences the first illustrates the verbal adjective *finished*, the second the group-perfect.

Your shoe has come undone and I shall be finished by the time you have done it up.

Collinson, Spoken English p. 38.

Anything else? — No thanks, I've finished. I've really made a very good breakfast. ib. p. 40.

602. The aspect of the perfect is sometimes expressed by *have* with a coordinate group of two participles, the first of *to be*, less often *to go*, the second of the verb with the meaning that is to be expressed. The construction can hardly be considered Standard English, except of the most familiar type. Many would call it vulgar English.

What's he done? Why, he's been and punched me in the intercostal region. Punch 6/12, 1905 p. 409.

I've been and dropped my pencil on the floor and broken the point. Collinson, Spoken English p. 26¹.

After he's gone and done what's proper for the child, the boy could easily slip Lazarus into Laurence.

Jerrold, Caudle Lect. XVI.

Sometimes a triple group arises when both *be* and *go* are used.

"Oh, if you please, Mum, there's no meat for dinner to-day. The butcher 'as been and gone and never come this morning."

Punch.

1) The same author (p. 38) supplies the following sentences as mutual alternatives: What a nuisance, I've been (I've gone) and put on my socks wrong side out!

I've been and gone and written or got in my head
a one-vol. novel for boys, to wit, Rugby in Arnold's
time. Thomas Hughes, in a letter to his publisher,
Graphic 21/10, 1922, p. 578¹⁾.

To Do

603. *To do, to be, and to have* form a special group of the verbs classed as auxiliaries because they have a complete verbal system and can serve the function of independent verbs as well as of elements of a verbal group. *To do* differs from the other two verbs, however, in two respects:

- (1) it can form a verbal group with the plain stem only, not with the other non-predicative verbal forms;
- (2) it is used as an element of a verbal group in its predicative function only.

604. The auxiliary use of *do* is a development of its use as a verb of full meaning, just as is the case with *to be* and *to have*. It is necessary, therefore, at least to refer to its meaning as an independent verb, although the reader must consult the dictionary for a complete treatment of its meanings.

As a verb of full meaning *to do* is used, both transitively and intransitively, to express all kinds of actions: *to do work, to do a man justice, to do one's duty; do as I tell you.* This is the meaning that has led to its auxiliary uses, and it seems superfluous to deal any further with the independent verb here.

Vicarious do 605. As a natural result of the meaning just defined, *to do* can refer to a verb of action that has been mentioned shortly before. This function is

1) Nearly all the quotations in this section are taken from van der Gaaf's notes in *Engl. Studien* vol. 62 p. 404 f.

distinguished as the *vicarious do*. It is easy to see that *vicarious do*, when used to refer to a verb of voluntary action (*a*), cannot be classed with the auxiliaries. It approaches the auxiliary character when it is a substitute for a verb of involuntary action (*b*).

a. He used to direct and superintend our games with the strictness that some parents do the studies of their children.

His simple seafaring men pursue their duty, as did the alchemists the philosopher's stone.

Times Lit. 7/8, 19.

The long Anglo-Saxon and Anglo-Danish period of our history laid the foundations of our constitution as it did those of our language and nationality.

Low, Brit. Const. p. 11.

b. Of course I began with the common penny novel of the worst type, but acquired a taste for better work in a shorter time than boys usually do.

Davies, Super-Tramp ch. 1 p. 10.

606. *Vicarious do* is also used to refer to a verb of occurrence; in this function it becomes still more of a grammatical form-word.

The thirteenth-century Parliament did not become an assembly of the "estates" as in France and elsewhere. At one time it threatened to do so...

Low, Brit. Const. p. 26.

She would never get stout as there was every danger of Clara doing. Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 31 p. 396.

607. *Vicarious do* is very frequent with the demonstrative *so*, a construction treated more fully in volume 2 (*Demonstrative Pronouns and Adverbs*), so that one example will suffice here:

She could not have said why she told him this; an instant before she spoke, she had no intention of doing so.

Gaskell, Wives I ch. 10.

The difference between *vicarious do* (*do so*) and the

verb of full meaning (*do it*) is sometimes very slight; see vol. 2 ib.

Very similar to the cases with *so* are those with the conjunction *as*.

The fourth volume, covering as it does the usual allowance of five plays, now brings the number up to twenty.
Athenaeum.

In connection with this church, one of the most beautifully situated in England, standing, as it does, in a lovely fold of the sheep-cropped downs over the Bristol Channel, we may recall one of Mr. Andrew Lang's happiest poems.
ib.

Auxiliary do **608.** The predicative forms of *to do*, i. e. the stem *do* used as an imperative, and as a present tense with the additional form *does*, and the pret-erite *did*, can form a verbal group with the simple plain stem of another verb or of *do* itself. We can distinguish three functions, which are characterized phonetically:

- (1) with the stronger stress on the auxiliary: *emphatic do*;
- (2) with equal stress on *do* and the plain stem: *even do*;
- (3) with weak stress on *do*: *weak do*.

Emphatic do **609.** Emphatic *do* is used in statements to express the conviction of the speaker that the statement is really true.

You do seem off colour. Sidgwick, Severins p. 266.

"But what's all this nonsense of socialism? You don't mean to say you have turned socialist?"

"That's just what I *do*¹⁾ mean to say."

Sweet, Spoken Engl. p. 88.

Suddenly aunt Agatha had an inspiration. Aunt Agatha was the kind of person who always does have inspirations at critical moments. Cornhill Mag. Nov. 1915.

1) Marked with extra-strong stress.

Of course he's wise — as wisdom goes. But, then,
wise men do do foolish things at intervals.

Trollope, Prime Minister ch. 2.

610. Emphatic *do* is used in statements to contrast fact with its negation (*a*), or actuality with possibility, etc. (*b*). This use differs from the one in 609 only in that the contrast is not implied, but explicitly stated.

a. It was inconceivable that Florence should dream of anything else; yet dream she did.

Lytton Strachey, Em. Vict. p. 116.

We shuddered as we stood below, and saw him hanging some forty feet above our heads, where there seemed nothing to support him, and what *did* support him was continually crumbling under him.

Sweet, Spoken Engl. p. 58.

She must have opened the door and looked in without my hearing her, for the first thing I did hear was her voice outside, speaking to the servant.

de Morgan, Vance, ch. 28 p. 264.

"If I'd known —" he began; but she cut him short.
"You did know," she said.

Phillpotts, Beacon I ch. 6 p. 45.

b. We expect to find, and we do find, infinite varieties of detail in their laws, their social distinctions, their methods of government. Davis, Med. Europe p. 24.

An example or two will best show the mode in which the "judiciary" (to use a convenient Americanism) can and do by means of the writ of *habeas corpus* keep a hold on the acts of the executive.

Dicey, Constitution, Lect. VI p. 237.

She was really going to get up, though, that was flat! The fire would blaze directly, although at the moment it was blowing wood-smoke down Jane's throat, and made her choke. Directly was five or six minutes, but the fire did blaze up royally in the end.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 5 p. 43.

But the full value of these volumes will be apparent

only when the time comes, if it ever does come, for the League of Nations to endeavour to profit by the experience of the Great War. Times Lit. 9/12, 20.

It may be worth noting that emphatic *do* contrasts two kinds of modality, but not two actions or states. Compare: *We did not take the tram, we walked.*

611. In pronominal questions emphatic *do* expresses wonder, astonishment, or impatience. Compare the compound interrogatives in *-ever*.

What *do* you mean?

612. In disjunctive questions two kinds of modality are contrasted, just as in statements (*a*). Two kinds of modality may also be contrasted by emphatic *do* in dependent pronominal questions (*b*).

a. "I knew that as soon as my father had got to Switzerland, he would be wanting to push on to Italy." "Did they go on to Italy?" "Yes."

Sweet, Spoken Engl. p. 73.

b. But you haven't told me where you *did* go after all¹⁾.

Sweet, Element. no. 73.

613. Emphatic *do* as an imperative expresses an urgent request, not a command.

Do change! Do, please, be lively, and yourself again.
Meredith, Harrington ch. 4 p. 27.

Good night, it's getting rather late and we must be going. Oh, do stay a bit longer, the night is still young.
Collinson, Spoken English p. 28.

614. It might be asked whether *do* and *be* in the first quotation of 613 really form a group, as they are separated by *please*, which is preceded and followed by a short pause. We might consider *do* as an introductory particle,

1) In both quotations of this section *did* is marked with extra-strong stress.

such as is frequently used in other languages before an imperative, e. g. *toe* in Dutch: *Toe, zeg het me* equivalent to *Do tell me*, or *Tell me please*. This interpretation is not acceptable, however, because emphatic *do* is freely used with verb stems in other than imperative uses. And in very familiar English it may even occur, if exceptionally, prefixed to *please* with a group of *don't* and a verb stem (*a*). The closeness of this group-imperative with *please* is also the explanation of its use as a stem (*b*).

Compare also the use of *let* with an object and such a group in the function of a plain stem (*c*).

a. "Oh, Tishy dear, how aggravating you are! Now do please don't be penetrating. You know you're trying to get at something; and there's nothing to get at . . ." de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 9 80.

b. Her husband asked me to please go away once or twice. Chapin, *New Morality*, Brit. Pl. p. 537.

c. "Look here, let's shut up this place and get out to Florida or somewhere for the winter!"

"Let's don't do anything of the kind."

P. G. Wodehouse, *The Coming of Bill* ch. 7 p. 76.

"Let's don't talk of it, Papa."

"Let's do," he returned genially.

Booth Tarkington, *Women (T.)* p. 199.

615. Emphatic *do* is also used in negative sentences (apart from those with *not*, which will be treated below).

But you don't look jolly, Mr. Miggot. You never do look very jolly. And I have wondered — why?

Vachell, *Quinneys'* p. 182.

The ordinary mortal had no hope of ever getting beyond the downstairs sitting-room and Dr. Sutherland. For that indefatigable disciple did, indeed, never desert her¹⁾. Lytton Strachey, *Em. Vict.* p. 164.

1) The reference is to p. 162: Miss Nightingale had suspected him intending 'to go off.'

He never did do that.

Temple Thurston, City III ch. 2 p. 228.

Even do 616. Strong-stressed *do* with a strong-stressed plain stem occurs in sentences made negative by *not*, which is weak [nt], unless it has contrasting stress (see 18). This group, which may be called *even do*, is used in statements (*a*), questions (*b*), and commands (*c*).

a. It doesn't matter to me in the least what he says,
I don't care whether he's telling the truth or not.

Collinson, Spoken English p. 6.

b. Don't you mind? — Not a bit.

Collinson, Spoken Engl. p. 6.

c. If you're in a hurry we'd better take a taxi. Don't bother to ring up, there's any amount of them on the rank round the corner.

Collinson, Spoken English p. 42.

Don't you worry about me and Kit.

Dane, Bill of Div., Brit. Pl. p. 651.

The use of *do* in this function enables us to distinguish the functions of the verb stem; for in its non-predicative function it is made negative by prefixing *not* [not]: *She tried not to smile*. As it is by no means evident in all cases whether a stem is used in a predicative or in a non-predicative function, the formal characteristic may be decisive, as in the following sentence¹⁾.

"Oh my dear Chris, try and not be a fool."

Love, by Elizabeth (T.) p. 289.

This shows that *be* is not a coordinated imperative verb stem here but a non-predicative plain stem.

617. It should be noted that a negative sentence with *not* takes *do* only when *not* qualifies the verbal pre-

1) It may be remarked that the construction is unusual.

dicate. The following sentences are affirmative (*a*). The last two are negative, but *not* qualifies the following noun (*b*).

a. I believe I asked him to hold his tongue about them — he says *not* (= *I did not ask*).

The present work has a much wider scope, for it *not only* treats the subject on wider lines, *but also* looks back to predisposing causes, and forward to subsequent developments.

Athenaeum.

Moreover, art and religion exist *not even chiefly* for the optimistic, *but even more* for the melancholy and dissatisfied.

ib. no. 1.

Sir Norman Lockyer seems *not to recognize* that there are many branches of human endeavour, notably that of history, that of criticism, biblical and other... ib.

She tried *not to smile*.

Meredith.

"I am afraid we shall find him out." — "I hope *not*."

b. But Mr. Rhodes gave *not the slightest* indication that such was his desire.

Oxf. and Camb. Rev. no. 10.

But at Pisa, where he (i. e. Addison) admires 'the great church, baptistery and leaning tower', and at Rimini, which 'has nothing modern to boast of,' he gives *not a thought* to the tragedies of Ugolino and Francesca.

Edinb. Rev. April 1908.

In none of these sentences is the adverb *not* used to make the predicative verb negative.

Note that the adverb *not* is pronounced with weak stress: [nt] when qualifying the predicative verb, unless emphasis requires a strong stress on *not*; but it is always pronounced [not] when it qualifies another word than the predicative verb.

618. A negative verb without *do* is used in some traditional adverbial or parenthetic phrases, such as *I know not how*, *I doubt not, if I mistake not*. See 620. The phrases are restricted to written English.

It had, I know not why, the mysterious air of romance all about it. Benson, Thread of Gold, p. 31.

I had a vague sense of a duty overlooked — I knew not what. Wells, Country p. 165.

Nature is wise in her young children, though they wot not of it, and are always trying to rush away from her. Meredith, Harrington ch. 34 p. 364.

(She) seemed to thirst to make him show his qualities, and excel, and shine. Billiards or jumping, or classical acquirements, it mattered not — Evan must come first.

Meredith, ib. ch. 20 p. 207.

619. The present and preterite of *do* are used with weak stress when the subject follows the rest of the verbal predicate. In spoken English this occurs chiefly in interrogative sentences (*a*); in literary English it is also frequent in other cases, especially in sentences opening with some part of the sentence that requires emphasis (*b*). On these questions of word-order, see vol. 3.

a. How many eggs did you buy?... What did he do?... Did you meet him?... At what angle do the tracks intersect? Collinson, Spoken English p. 16.

How does one bring in a motion? — By some such phrase as: Mr. Chairman, I beg to move that...

ib. p. 94.

b. But there is no reason to suppose that anywhere in Britain did the pre-Celtic population maintain itself independent. Oman, Conquest p. 20.

620. The uses of auxiliary *do* have been classified in three groups, but it needs little thought to see that these are closely related. Indeed, it may be said that emphatic and even *do* are essentially identical; the difference is that in the former case *do* has extra-strong stress owing to contrast. The distinction between the two is hardly real in the case of the imperative: *do come* is classified as a case of em-

Uses of Auxiliary

Do Compared

phatic; *don't come* as even *do*, although it may also be uneven (623). The essentially emphatic character of even *do* is the explanation of the constructions in 618, which are used in clauses of subordinate importance only.

The distinction between even *do* and weak *do*, though plain enough in case of emphatic front-position of some part of the predicate (619 *b*), is hardly perceptible or not at all in the interrogative sentences (619 *a*) when compared with the corresponding negative-interrogative sentences: *What did he say?* and *What did not he pay?*

Vicarious and Auxiliary Do Compared **621.** It has been pointed out that the distinction of *do* as an independent verb and as a vicarious verb, though evidently justified, is sometimes of no real importance (607). The same applies to the distinction of vicarious and auxiliary *do*; it will be useful to show this, because these 'doubtful' cases show how easy it is for one use to lead to another.

The distinction between vicarious and auxiliary *do* is fundamentally based on a fact that can be easily observed: vicarious *do* is independent, auxiliary *do* expresses a meaning only in combination with a plain stem. But a difficulty arises when we find sentences with *do* not accompanied by a plain stem because it has just been mentioned, as in the following cases.

"I believe you like fighting and getting over difficulties".

"I believe I do," said Charlotte complacently.
Eliz. in Rügen.

"You saved me," he said curtly. — "Oh, George." —
"Yes you did." Spragge, Canyon.

... and meanwhile he takes it for granted that Clare feels the same... Well, she doesn't.

Walpole, Fort. III ch. 7 p. 308.

"Won't you come into the drawing-room?" she said.
And they did, looking rather sheepish.

Haggard, Mr. Meeson ch. 15.

But serious harm has not yet accrued, and a change should be made before it does.

New Statesman 18/1, 19.

In these sentences *do* does not express the sense without the addition of the verb and adjuncts it refers to, and it would be impossible to substitute *do it*, *did it* (as if it were a verb of full meaning) or *do so*, *did so* (as if it were a vicarious verb). We must consequently recognize the existence of emphatic or even *do* when there is no accompanying plain stem.

And when we consider a case like the following we must do the same with regard to weak *do*.

I feel rather tired after my walk. — So do I.

Many examples of emphatic *do* in such constructions will be found in 425 ff. For weak *do*, see 431 b.

Do with Auxiliaries **622.** In 425 ff. it has been shown that the auxiliaries are repeated in many cases when full verbs are referred to by *do*, whether looked upon as a vicarious or an auxiliary *do* (621). We must now deal with the use of emphatic, even, and weak *do* with auxiliaries in statements, questions and commands.

It will be convenient first to deal with those auxiliaries that have a plain stem, and after that with the auxiliaries that cannot take *do* because they occur in the present and preterite only, or exclusively in the preterite.

623. *To be* with emphatic *do* is freely used in the imperative, also in the imperative with *not*. The fact that it is not generally used in other cases (statements and questions) is an additional argument in favour of the view

expressed in 620 that the distinction between emphatic and even *do* is not a real one here.

Do be a little less noisy, please.

Don't be naughty, Jackie.

624. We sometimes find *do* with *be* in rhetorical negative questions; its emphatic character need not be pointed out.

"Why don't you be thoroughly original and issue no invitations to women at all?" Margaret inquired.

E. Ph. Oppenheim, *The Evil Shepherd* ch. 33 p. 274.

When you are reading one of those things about cavalry, by that idiotic Prince — why doesn't he be a Prince instead of a stableboy?

Kipling, *Story of the Gadby's* ¹⁾.

Why don't you be mannerly, Bob, instead of shouting that way?

Carr, *Daily Dialogues*.

625. Auxiliary *do* is freely used with *to have* when used with nominal adjuncts, i. e. as a verb of full meaning, both in sentences with *not* (*a*) and in cases of weak *do* with inversion of subject and predicate (*b*).

a. We don't have many visitors.

What the precise virtue of this invocation was, we did not have an opportunity of testing.

Benson, *Thread of Gold* p. 29.

F. T. Bullen did not have the style, the imagination, the passion for involved psychology which characterise the genius of Mr. Conrad.

Williams, *Modern Engl. Writers* p. 393.

"Let me see, you didn't have any golf-clubs, did you, sir?" asked the porter. Sinister Street p. 499.

1) This and the following example have been borrowed from Dr. Arvid Smith's *Strödda Anmärkningar till Engelska Syntaxen III* in *Moderna Språk* for December 1929.

b. "So you are back again from Norway, are you?"
"Yes."

"Did you have a good passage?"

Sweet, Element. no. 71.

Did Margaret really have a suspicion that he was in love with Pauline?

Mackenzie, Guy and Pauline ch. 2 p. 93.

Did you have a smooth passage?

Collinson, Spoken English p. 46.

When do you have breakfast? Sweet, Element. 53.

Did you ever have a quarter of an hour of absolutely unalloyed happiness?

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 47 p. 519.

What effect did they have on the social graces, on making the art of private living more attractive?

Botsford, Engl. Soc. 18th Cent. p. 16.

Belasis (with a smile). Do you always have lobster on the river, Betty?

Betty. Oh, no, we have salmon sometimes; don't we, Alice? Chapin, New Morality, Brit. Pl. p. 578.

626. When *to have* is accompanied by a permanent attribute it does not take the auxiliary (Bradley, Making of English p. 71). The reason evidently is that *have* in these groups has little independent meaning, as explained in 544.

He had not a good character.

Has she blue eyes?

627. *To have* can also take the auxiliary *do* when it is construed with a stem with *to*, as shown by the following sentences.

a. "I wish you didn't have to go!" he had replied.
J. L. Allen, Choir Invisible.

You don't have to meet your young man on the pier, because there isn't a pier.

Bennett, Anna ch. 10 p. 155.

I think I'm glad I don't have to wear a scholar's gown.
Sinister Street p. 509.

So Michael did not have to walk to the station beside a gown that reminded him of Mrs. Walsingham's drawing-room chairs. Sidgwick, Severins ch. 4 p. 43.

b. We don't have far to go to the kitchen.

There's one thing I am thankful for; that's that I don't have to wear skirts.

I have got some linen I want to send off laundry rate. Do I have to fill in a form?

628. The use of *to have got* as an alternative of *to have*, both as a verb of full meaning and as a member of a syntactic group with a stem with *to* has been mentioned in 588 f. Like the other purely verbal groups with *have* it does not take *do*.

He has not got any money now.

I wish you hadn't got to go.

629. *To dare* and *to need* are hardly used apart from verbal groups in spoken English; on literary uses, see the final chapter of vol. 2, and 634.

To let is exclusively used in verbal groups.

Both *dare* and *let* often take emphatic *do* in negative imperative use; see 615 on a special case of *do*.

"Mind," in lower tones, "don't you dare touch him whilst you're out."

Pett Ridge, Name of Garland p. 40.

Now, don't let's have any nonsense.

Bennett, Clayhanger II ch. 17 § 5.

"This cellar must be roofed, walled, and floored," repeated the archdeacon. "Now mind what I say, and don't let the architect persuade you that it will do!"

Trollope, Barchester Towers.

"Very well then," he concluded triumphantly, "don't let's have so much talk."

630. Both *dare* and *need* are frequent in negative sentences with *not*; in this case their auxiliary character is emphasized, however, so that they are generally used without *do*. See below, in the sections on these verbs. *To let* is generally treated like any full verb with regard to the use of *do*.

He didn't let me finish what I wanted to say.

631. *To need* is frequently used with *do* in negative statements, also in verbal groups. The reason seems to be that the verb has a clear independent meaning in these cases. The use is probably literary rather than spoken English, but it is a natural construction. See 638.

The relevancy of the foregoing features in the earlier history of the study of Greek to the whole current of classical learning in subsequent times does not need to be explained to the well-read scholar.

Edinburgh Rev., Oct. 1905.

Our family doesn't need to do things. Hope, Zenda.

But Thackeray did not need to go back to the eighteenth century for an example.

Whibley, Thackeray p. 46.

But the unity of *Germania* — the community of sentiment among the early German nations — does not need to be proved by such philological notes as the opposition of "Dutch" and "Welsh." Ker, Engl. Lit. p. 27.

But all the ordinary affairs of life were provided for by ancient customs of the tribe which were not written down, and did not need to be written down, because every one knew them.

C. Gill, Government and People p. 133.

632. The third group of auxiliaries distinguished in 420 consists of *ought* and *used*. Both of these can take *not* after them, as shown in the sections dealing with these auxiliaries below.

In familiar spoken English, however, *ought* is treated sometimes as a stem, taking *did not* in negative sentences, and *did* in interrogative use (*a*). This use is perhaps more usual still in the case of *used*, which is naturally looked upon as a preterite, although the stem *use* [jus], not [juz], does not exist, apart from groups with *did not* and *did* (*b*).

a. I didn't ought to have done that.

Didn't I ought to shut the door? ¹⁾

b. pijpl didnt juwstu ijt sou matsj mijt əz ðei duw nau.
See 23, 7.

It may be remarked here that *ought* is also used as a participle to form a group-perfect.

She never worried about what she'd done that she hadn't ought to.

Glenway Wescott, *The Apple of the Eye*. 1926.

633. The other auxiliaries: *can*, *may*, *must*, *shall*, and *will* never take *do*. And instead of taking vicarious *do* they are repeated, as is shown in 425 ff. The same thing applies to *be* and *have* in the purely verbal groups. It may be most convenient to give a number of sentences showing the use of these auxiliaries in emphatic use (*a*), in sentences with the sentence-negative *not* (*b*), and with inversion of subject and predicate (*c*).

In all of the following quotations the italics are in the original text, except for the phonetic transcriptions which indicate extra-strong stress by other means.

a. Here we have on a very small scale the exact difference between constitutional or fundamental laws which cannot, and ordinary laws which can, be changed by the company. Dicey, *Constit. Lect.* III p. 87.

1) The sentences have been heard from educated speakers. No printed examples have ever come under my observation.

Well, you *are* going ahead; you are a most promising socialist baby. Sweet, Spoken Engl. p. 89.

"Now I shall tell your mother. Mark my words, this time I *shall* tell your mother."

Bennett, Old W. Tale II ch. 4 § 1, p. 196.

We are not for the moment concerned with the political merits of the question at issue; but we *are* concerned with the prestige of the House of Commons.

Everyman 29/11, 12.

"A month or two ago I really was afraid you were going mad over it like poor Snipe." "How *is* poor Snipe? I haven't heard of him for ever so long."

Sweet, Spoken Engl. p. 89.

She felt depressed and uncomfortable. What an odd, queer kind of fortune had been told her! And then it had all been so muddled. She could scarcely remember what it was that *had* been told her.

Lowndes, Chink ch. 2 p. 23.

"Randolph," said the young lady, "what *are* you doing?" James, Daisy Miller ch. 1 p. 13.

Humphrey, snatching it up, rushed out of the room.
"What *is* the matter?" asked Sir Everard.

Montgomery, Misunderstood ch. 7.

"There is nothing I like better than lying on dry hay."
"Is it dry?" Sweet, Element. no. 65.

We've only got to ask leave for you to come and see me, and the thing's done. We both said: "Yes, yes, that'd be glorious. But *will* Mr. Webb let us go?" Ned said: "Leave that to me. I'll manage it."

Sweet, Spoken Engl. p. 51.

She has smelt a rat, and suddenly fixes her eyes on a tell-tale countenance fraught with mysterious reserves.

"Mother you *are* going to marry Mr. Fenwick!" No change of type could do justice to the emphasis with which Sally goes straight to the point. Italics throughout would be weak. Her mother smiles as she fondles her daughter's excited face.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 14 p. 140.

As it was, she very nearly came away from Krakatoa Villa next morning without waiting to see the letter from Rheims, the post being late. Why *is* everything late on Monday? ib. ch. 18 p. 174.

Left alone after this second interview he had thought: "The beggar 'll jump." And the beggar *had*.

Galsworthy, Caravan p. 56.

b. There is not [iznt] generally much dew, if the sky is not [iznt] clear. Sweet, Element. no. 5.

You are an hour late. I am very sorry, but I could not help it. It was not [wɒznt] my fault. ib. no. 32.

It can't be helped. Collinson, Spoken English p. 4.

See also 18 ff.; and compare *not* as a word-modifier.

It's not [ɪts nʌt] much use.

Collinson, Spoken English p. 2.

c. What sort of book is it? — Is it any use me writing to him? Collinson, Spoken English p. 2.

Who's he with? ib. p. 6.

When will you be going there again? ib. p. 8.

How long have you been in London? ib. p. 10.

How old would you take him to be? ib. p. 12.

Is it thawing yet? ib. p. 32.

Might I trouble you for a light? ib. p. 40.

Have you ever been up in an aeroplane? ib. p. 46.

The auxiliary character of *come* in a verbal group may cause it to be used without *do* in a question.

"How comes he to have stayed?" he mused.

Galsworthy, Frelands ch. 25.

To Dare

634. The second group of auxiliaries (420), consisting of the verbs *dare*, *need*, and *let*, contains verbs that are almost exclusively used as members of verbal groups. The use of *dare* and *need* as independent verbs (with

nominal adjuncts) is chiefly literary. This is the character of the following quotations with independent *dare*.

I saw and felt London at last.. I dared the perils of the crossings.

To range the savage haunts, and dare
In his dark home the sullen bear.

He knew she was daring him to contradict her.

635. When *dare* is a member of a verbal group it may be accompanied by a stem with *to* or without. The auxiliary character of *dare*, i. e. its subordination to the stem, is greater when the other element is a plain stem.

And negative *dare*, expressing 'to lack the courage to do something', is much less of an independent verb in its meaning than positive *dare*, which expresses not only *to have*, but *to show* the courage to do something. This is the reason, the chief reason at any rate, why the plain stem is the usual form in negative sentences. But rhythmical considerations are probably responsible sometimes for the selection of the stem-form, especially in literary English; the weak negative syllabic [nt] *not* can serve the same phonetic function as *to*, both separating two strong stresses.

On the use of *dares*, see 23, 6.

(1) *dare* with plain stem.

a. present tense.

He dare not say no to anybody.

How dare she come? Sidgwick, Severins p. 219.

And though Sir Ensor Doone is now so old, and growing feeble, his own way he will have still, and no one dare deny him. Blackmore, Lorna Doone ch. 21 p. 130.

Damn you, Gelstrap, how dare you be so infernally careless as to leave that hamper littering about the cellar?

Samuel Butler, The Way of All Flesh.

And no modern author dare reproduce the lust and rapine, murder, robbery and outrage that characterised the period of which Malory wrote.

b. past tense.

She hardly dared put her thoughts into words.

Vachell, Spragge p. 190.

As for me, I dared not speculate as to the causes of the affability which shone upon me.

Even to visit his mother's tomb Horace Walpole dared not venture his fairy limbs in the precincts.

He tried to feel content, but he dare not.

Orestes knew well enough that the fellows must have been bribed to allow the theft; but he dare not say so.

There was none dare tell him that he was childless.

*c. non-predicative *dare*.*

And as to the thing said, there are some who would dare mention the "Appreciations with an Essay on Style" in the same breath as "The English Humourists of the Eighteenth Century."

He did not dare turn his head.

Wells, Country p. 228.

Gracious mercy, people will laugh at me so that I shall not dare show my head.

At last we found shelter by the merest chance in the prettiest house in the place — we had not dared inquire there, certain that its room would be taken first of all.

(2) *dare* and stem with *to*.

If he dares to touch me!

He did not dare to meet his uncle.

Florence hardly dared to raise her eyes.

No one would dare to desert.

636. It is rare for the form *dares* to be used with a plain stem, as in the following quotations, which are probably literary rather than spoken English.

Nature has caprices which art dares not imitate.
 What man over thirty dares hope for the Republic
 before he die?
 They positively loathe the woman who dares turn
 them into ridicule.

To Need

637. *To need* as an independent verb is literary rather than colloquial English; see 634. This use may be illustrated by a few quotations. The literary character of *needed* in the first quotation is proved by its use as a modal preterite in a main clause, which is never done in spoken English.

The English plays of Shakespeare needed but the completion of one unimportant interval to possess the unity of a popular chronicle from Richard the Second to Henry the Eighth... Walter Pater, *Appreciations*.

Pickwick needed no second invitation.

Such a deed needed a worse man than was needed for any of William's earlier deeds.

There needs no better picture of his destitute and piteous situation, than that furnished by the homely pen of the chronicler.

638. In spoken English *need* is almost exclusively used as a member of a verbal group, either the plain stem or the stem with *to*, apart from the uses which have been treated in the chapters on the verbal ing (134) and on *do* (631), because *need* has the character of an independent verb in those constructions, expressing 'to require'.

The use of the plain stem or the form with *to* follows the same lines as in the case of *dare*. Here, as in the case of *dare*, the unchanged form with the plain stem is almost exclusively used in negative sentences, including questions with *why*, and for a similar reason. We may

say that the construction with the stem with *to* is practically restricted to literary English.

(1) *need* with plain stem.

ei nijd nt sei hau wij díd əuə lesnz -ðæt :dei.

Sweet, Pr. of Sp. Engl. p. 52.

I need hardly ask again.

Why need he bother us?

(2) *need* with stem with *to*.

The small building at the right of the entrance is a bicycle stowage shed. In Holland, bicycles need to be catered for seriously, owing to their general popularity.

Studio, March 1931 p. 177.

It is very plain that an inquiry of this kind needs to be fixed by reference to a given set of social circumstances tolerably well understood.

Morley, Compromise.

Ideals are always destructive things; part of their business is the destruction of something which needs to be replaced by something else. Times Lit. 6/1, 21.

They (viz. the landlords) needed to spend much less on labour in pasture lands. Athenaeum 8/11, 13.

If it were true — and he believed every word his father said — then it must be possible. You only needed to ask — that was all.

Temple Thurston, Thirteen I.

Those readers who know Dr. Cox's book on that other "Garden of England", his "Rambles in Surrey", will not need to be told that he does not write merely for the lover of the country or the casual tourist.

Athenaeum, 3/5, 13.

We shall not need to reflect whether those older conditions were natural. Coulton, Medieval Village p. 8.

639. In negative sentences *need* with a plain stem is used in the function of a past tense (*a*). When grouped with a plain perfect stem it has a modal function (*b*), but this is in consequence of the stem, not of *need* (see 580).

a. I felt all the luxury of convalescence creeping into my bones. All that I need do was to lie there and let people feed me... Walpole, *The Secret City* ch. 15 p. 100.

b. We need not have been in such a hurry after all.
Who knows whether I need have fled?

To Let

640. Although grouped with *dare* and *need*, *to let* differs from these verbs in taking one mixed noun-and-verb construction only, the object with plain stem. See 193 ff.

The word-order sometimes shows how close is the connection between the verbal elements of this group: the plain stem sometimes precedes the noun that according to logical analysis would serve as its subject: for the original *he let the axe slip* there is substituted *he let slip the axe*. In the last construction the verb *let* is completely subordinated, both in meaning and in phonetic form, so that it is little more than a prefix making the following stem transitive.

I remember when I let fall a remark.

Gissing, *Henry Ryecroft*, XIV.

James Thomson was another writer of great ability who let pass no opportunity of doing admiring homage to Mr. Meredith. W. Jerrold, *Meredith*, p. 19.

Clarendon, the historian of those mutable times, lets pass no conspicuous actor in the struggle without weighing his character and summarizing it.

Q. Couch, *17th Cent. Characters*, Introd. p. 3.

For reasons best known to himself Chaucer lets slip this opportunity. Raleigh, *Hist. of the Novel* p. 6.

It's my forlorn hope not to betray those who are following me; and not to help let die a fire — a fire that's sacred — not only now in this country, but in all countries for all times. Galsworthy, *The Mob*.

Later on I was vexed with myself for letting slip this unique opportunity for acquiring some genuine undergraduate slang.
Barbara.

641. The difference of word-order between the two constructions cannot be observed in relative clauses, but the phonetic character of *let* as well as the syntactic character of the whole is the same.

She picked up the brush which she had let fall.
Garvice, Staunch p. 8.

642. The shifted order of words is especially found in groups of *let* with verbs of movement, such as *let fall*, *let pass*, *let slip*. These groups are so much units that they can form single passive groups with *be* (*a*), and can also be used as participles (*b*).

a. It was a field that had been let go by the previous tenant, who was always in arrears with his work.

Freeman, Joseph ch. I p. I.

But the opportunity was let slip after the days of Bishop Bedell.
Everyman.

A man ought not to be let drift to the point of unteachable incapacity. Wells, Joan and Peter ch. II § II.

b. It was as clear as daylight from hints let fall in "The Bible in Spain", that (his adventures) must have been very strange and outlandish.

Borrow, Lavengro, Introd. to Everyman ed. p. VII.

643. Sometimes, probably in literary rather than colloquial English, *let* retains its independent meaning of 'allow, permit'. In such a case the word-order is naturally the old one, and we even find *let* used in a passive group with a stem with *to*.

I've always been of the Forward Party, which wanted to send expeditions to explore, but I was never let to go.

Rose Macaulay, Orphan Island (T.) p. 107.
(Körner in Moderna Språk, Sept. 1930).

644. *To let* is also used with an object and plain stem to express exhortation. Thus *Let us go* may mean *Allow us to go*, but it may also be used as an exhortative¹⁾. Compare also *Let him write his letters in peace* with *Let him pay his own bills before meddling with mine*. *Let* is an auxiliary of modality (exhortation) in the instance quoted from Bennett in 629.

645. From the adhortative use of the preceding section there is an easy transition to the purely modal use in optative (*a*), conditional (*b*), and concessive (*c*) sentences. On the latter sentences compare 178 ff.

a. "Do take some of these flowers," said Miss Nunn, collecting a rich nosegay from the vases. "Let them be my message to your sister . . ."

Gissing, *Odd Women* ch. 3.

But let not the public misjudge me.

White, *Strood*, ch. I p. I.

Let there be no mistake about the real meaning of the speech. Times 16/3, 16 p. 9/2.

It does not follow that this is the only explanation, but if there are others let them be ascertained.

The Mail, 22/9, 20.

b. Let him be flattered sufficiently and Peter saw that his way would be easy.

Walpole, *Fort. I* ch. 7 § 2 p. 78.

The son of a tradesman, if a boy fell under the imputation, was worthy of honour with him, let the fellow but show grip and toughness²⁾.

Meredith, *Ormont* ch. I p. 10.

Jekyll was now my city of refuge; let but Hyde peep

1) Dutch distinguishes the two meanings formally, using *Laat ons gaan* for the first, *Laten we gaan* for the second. In the second case *laten* is clearly an auxiliary.

2) For the use of the imperative *let* in this quotation, and in the next, see 178 ff.

out an instant, and the hands of all men would be raised to take and slay him. Stevenson, Dr. Jekyll p. 126.

c. And the time will never come when the other towns — let them swell and bluster as they may — will not pronounce the name of Bursley as one pronounces the name of one's mother.

Bennett, Old W. Tale I ch. 1, p. 20.

Let them look at the matter in any way, the punishment was very heavy. Trollope, Framley ch. 42 p. 412.

They two, let their loyalty to Lady Lufton be ever so strong, could not justify it. ib. ch. 31 p. 306.

The character of *let* as an auxiliary is emphasized in the second sentence by the absence of *to do*; see 629 f.

Ought

646. The isolated form *ought* must be considered a verbal stem that is chiefly used as a present tense¹⁾. This is shown by the use of the auxiliary *do* in familiar English (632). It denotes a moral obligation, also what is befitting, proper, correct, advisable, or naturally expected.

We ought to call on them; let us go this afternoon.

He was close to her just then, gentlemen, so he really ought to know.

647. The interpretation of *ought* as a present tense, although this is clearly its chief function, is not exhaustive. It is sometimes used in a function that is parallel to the preterite of other verbs. This is the case:

- (1) when it expresses a future occurrence or state that is looked upon as certain or probable. This is completely parallel to the use of the modal preterite *should* described in 700.

1) On the use of *ought* as a secondary past tense in reported style see vol. 3 (*Concord of Tense*).

There ought to be some high bidding at Messrs. Sotheby's on Dec. 18th, when a valuable series of autograph letters and literary MSS. will be disposed of.

Everyman.

Jonson and Dryden... were men from whom prosodic discussion might naturally have been expected, and from whom it ought to have been exceptionally valuable.

Prof. Saintsbury in Cambr. Hist. of Lit. VIII, 238.

"Land ought to be very dear about here," he said.
Galsworthy, Man of Property ch. 3 p. 54.

- (2) when it forms a group with a perfect stem to express the meaning explained in 575 and 580.

We ought to have done that long ago.

I ought to have married; yes I should ha' married long ago. Gissing, A Life's Morning ch. 9 p. 137
(Poutsma I p. 75).

Used

648. The preterite *used* [just] expresses the iterative aspect of a past action or occurrence, and may be defined as denoting what was generally or repeatedly seen or done at a past period.

The 60 mile section of the line from the new Baghdad station north of Adana eastward to Mamureh used, in peace-time, to be covered in five hours.

Times W. 5/1, 17.

Turning criticism into what Swinburne used sneeringly to call 'finger-counting'. Quarterly Rev. July 1915.

"Used I to grumble?" asked Michael.

Sinister Street p. 890.

Michael, when Sylvia had said something particularly broad, used to look away from Lily; and yet he knew he need not have bothered, for Lily was always outside the conversation. ib. p. 1010.

You don't practise as much as you used.

ib. p. 603.

Aunt Sarah, who usen't to talk to Nina, turned to her and said . . . Aunt Sarah and the War.

See 23, 7 and 632.

649. When the stem that accompanies *used* does not express an action or occurrence but a state, the group naturally cannot denote repetition. In such a case it expresses what was formerly the regular state of things (*a*). This meaning inevitably subordinates the idea of regularity or rule, so that the group comes to express the contrast between the past and the present time (*b*). The distinction is not an absolute one, naturally; and the classification of the following quotations must be judged accordingly.

a. I was half inclined to jump in, and swim through such glorious scenery; for nothing used to please me more than swimming in a flooded river.

Blackmore, Lorna Doone ch. 46 p. 318.

"You don't mean to say you get German bands in this out of the way place?" "Oh, yes, sometimes two or three a week, or rather, we used to have them. They don't come now; the dogs keep them away."

Sweet, Spoken Engl. p. 69.

b. What did it all mean? England used to be a place to live in. Galsworthy, *Freelands* ch. 20.

I knew him by his voice. I should never have known him by sight because of his beard. He used only to have a moustache. Sweet, Element. no. 43.

It (viz. the hair) doesn't curl as it used once.

Trollope, Dr. Thorne p. 315.

The Norman Conquest used sometimes to be represented as a mere set-back in the evolution of our political system. Some of the writers of the last century . . .

Low, Brit. Const. p. 11.

Far in a western brookland
That bred me long ago
The poplars stand and tremble
By pools I used to know.

Housman, Shropshire Lad no. 52.

The following example may be classed differently according as *think* is taken to express a state of mind (to be of opinion) or a mental activity.

I used to think that actresses paid their maids to go into the pit and applaud them as they entered the auditorium, but this was a very foolish and unjust belief.
Observer, 34/10, 20.

650. The two functions of *used* are found successively in the following quotation.

Father used to tell me that in each guest-chamber, at the foot of the bed, there used to stand a table loaded with silver, piles of dollars covered with a cloth.
Vachell, Spragge p. 17.

Can and Could

651. *Can* belongs to the fourth group of auxiliaries distinguished in 420. The peculiar character of this and the following group will be best discussed in the retrospect at the end of this chapter, but one thing it seems necessary to premise: if *can*, like the other auxiliaries to be treated in the following sections, has forms for the present tense and the preterite only, not for the non-predicative functions, nor, consequently, for the groups formed with a non-predicative verbal, it is because the meaning of these auxiliaries is such that the non-predicative forms are not required. Any term like the traditional *defective verbs* must, therefore, be rejected as completely misleading. It has been pointed out (26) that the form *could* is only in a restricted sense to be looked upon as a preterite of *can*. This applies not only to the forms but also to their syntactic functions, so that it will be most convenient and instructive to deal separately with

each form. The same will be done with the other auxiliaries that have to be treated still.

652. *Can* expresses all kinds of ability or capability, power or fitness. The most important point about it is that it is chiefly used as a neutral present (*a*). It is also possible for *can* to express the same meanings in the function of an actual present (*b*).

a. What's the use of pretending? We can all see through you. Collinson, Spoken English p. 2.

Can we have dinner on the train? ib. p. 44.

The nurse had slept profoundly, but she was one of those fortunate people who can do so at will, and then wake up at an appointed time, as many great soldiers have been able to do.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 24 p. 262.

The king can declare war and make peace.

A parrot can talk like a man: she can repeat whole sentences, and knows what they mean. We call this talking, but it is not real speaking, for the parrot can no more make up sentences of itself than a dog can.

Sweet, Element. no. 23.

b. I am going to the post. Anything I can do for you?

Collinson, Spoken Engl. p. 54.

653. The neutral present is frequently used when the future is referred to, so that there can be no question of any time being distinctly expressed by the verb.

I will take the rooms. When can I move in? Shall I pay you a week's rent in advance?

Collinson, Sp. Engl. p. 54.

Phone up the box-office and book two stalls. We can call for them about ten minutes before the performance begins. ib. p. 82.

If we can get some more subscriptions we ought to be able to offer a very attractive programme of lectures and social evenings. ib. p. 98.

654. The distinction between the actual and the neutral present is often impossible. Perhaps the distinction should not be made at all here, for speakers are quite unaware of any difference.

Can I have some more bread, please?

Collinson, Sp. Engl. p. 52.

I'll put on the reading-lamp on the desk ... Perhaps we can manage with that. ib. p. 70.

655. A special case of neutral *can* is its use to denote that a quality which a person possesses appears now and then. In this case *can* expresses the effect of a natural law.

Personality can be irresistible.

Vachell, Quinneys' p. 286.

I am merely telling you all this to prove to you how silly a girl can be if she attaches too much importance to sentiment. Hobbes, Some Emotions I ch. 6.

Yet Jane Austen can be tart enough — insipidity is the last accusation which can be raised against her — only her gift of kindly humour prevents her from ever becoming shrewish. Lady Sackville.

What an irritating thing a conversation can be!

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 2 p. 10.

Nell looked at her and just laughed. Girls can be beasts! I'd punch a fellow's head but I wouldn't laugh at him like that. Owen Oliver, Home Defence.

Their faces are pale, partly from fasting, partly from anticipation, for the passage can be rough in February.

E. M. Forster, Philo's Little Trip.

656. The preterite *could* is used as a past tense in the same meanings as the actual present of *can* in 652 (*a*) and 655 (*b*). It can also serve as a modal preterite in the sense of 652 (*c*).

a. I tried to lift the sack but I could not.

b. "I used to be rather hot once."

"You could be peppery, my lady."

Meredith, Harrington ch. 28 p. 292.

(The story is a sad one). The question arises, Was this sadness inherent to the temperament of the man who in his private correspondence and conversation could be gay, humorous, and sometimes overflowing with high spirits?

Athenaeum.

To have introduced French blood into the Flowers, notwithstanding the pride of the family in their Norman origin, still seemed to him an astonishing piece of audacity; even now he could shudder to think what his father would have said, had his father been alive when he married.

Mackenzie, Seven Ages of Woman ch. 1 p. 16.

c. In the year 1852 Livingstone made up his mind to strike into the interior, and find a healthy station which could become a centre for missionary work.

What, if now he should discover suddenly that it (his book) was bad... Could he endure it?

Walpole, Fort. II ch. 1 § 2 p. 155.

For more than a week my pen has lain untouched... I could imagine that my old penholder feels reproachfully towards me.

Gissing, Ryecroft I.

"What rot! Is that friendship? I call that the most selfish thing I've ever known". No, obviously enough, Bobby *could* never understand that kind of thing.

Walpole, Fortitude II ch. 3 § 3 p. 178.

657. When *could* is combined with a perfect stem the meaning is modal, as usual in this group (580).

These seven years had been well enough as a preparation; now at last he was to be flung, head foremost, into life.

He could have sung, he could have shouted...

Walpole, Fort. II ch. 5 p. 194.

658. *Can* may also express possibility due to circumstances (*a*), especially in sentences that are negative in meaning (*b*).

a. We can expect opposition from vested interests.

Times 16/3, 16, p. 9/2.

The book is a real contribution to our knowledge of historical syntax, and we can look forward with interest to that larger work which M. Courmont promises us in his preface. H. T. Price, Beibl. z. Anglia 23.

Privy Councillors, other than Ministers and certain high officials, have a titular rank and no duties. They can safely take an oath not to betray State secrets for they will not get the chance. Low, Brit. Const. p. 54.

b. It can't be helped. — I can't always be right.
Collinson, Spoken English p. 4.

No student of Dryden can fail to mark the force and sweep of an intellect impatient of restraint.

Dennis, Age of Pope.

That a new tax should be chosen that will seem to convey such indications is not what Mr. Balfour can desire. Pilot.

But I don't quite see what he can gain if our Party helps him through with his Bill for the payment of members. Patterson, Stephen Compton, p. 245.

It is difficult to believe that the novel can have done much to advance these principles. Boas, Essays II, 48.

659. A special case of this meaning is found in interrogative sentences with a strong stress on *can* to express astonishment or impatience¹⁾. Compare *may*.

"Well, Betsy, who is it?"

"Please, Miss, it's Mr. Austen, he wants to speak to Miss Beatrice by herself for a minute; so I've shown him into the library."

"How extraordinary; what *can* he want?"

Sweet, Element. no. 63.

A great poet may tax our brains, but he ought not to puzzle our wits. We may often have to ask with humility 'what *does* he mean?' but not in despair 'what *can* he mean?' Birrell, Obiter Dicta p. 30.

1) The emphatic stress in the quotations is indicated in the original texts.

660. The preterite *could* is also used to express possibility, in the same two cases. The function is that of a modal preterite (*a*); *could* can also be grouped with a perfect stem (*b*), see 580.

a. He looked round him in every direction. "I could swear that was Bellows. Why don't you show yourself like a man, Bellows?" Wells, Country p. 89.

But where could he be at this time, and on such an evening, leaving his supper in this stage of preparation, and his door unfastened?

George Eliot, Silas Marner ch. 4.

b. Mr. Utterson thought he had never seen that part of London so deserted. He could have wished it otherwise; never in his life had he been conscious of so sharp a wish to see and touch his fellow-creatures.

Stevenson, Dr. Jekyll p. 67.

He could not have failed to anticipate — and events have proved that he did not fail to anticipate — the waylayings to which he was subjected.

Poe, Selected Short Stories II p. 94.

661. When followed by a passive stem *can* is often almost equivalent to *may*. In the following quotations *can* is used because the writer thinks of the personal subject which is understood. See 679 on *may*.

Prof. Gregory Smith's proposed classification into periods seems very reasonable though he shows himself alive to the objections which can be urged against it (= which *we* or *scholars* can urge against it).

Athenaeum.

He maintains further that the section now under discussion, Books VII.—IX., was the first part of the work that Herodotus wrote, and that when he completed it by adding the other books, he made a few slight changes which can be traced (i. e. which we can trace). ib.

The Government can be excused (i. e. we can excuse the G.) for not being persuaded by arguments inspired by such motives. Daily News, 26/10, 11.

The points of agreement, some of which are on what may be called the major questions for consideration, can first be indicated (i. e. it is convenient first to indicate, etc.). Times, reviewing the majority and minority reports of the Royal Commission on Divorce.

Can, Could, and To Be Able **662.** In some uses *can* and *could* are alternatives of forms of the group *to be able*.

It is natural, therefore, to compare the two. They chiefly compete in the meaning of 652, but in the neutral present *can* is used only; *to be able* can be substituted when a definite time is thought of (*a*). It seems even that the preterite of *to be able* is preferred as a past tense, when it is possible to use the group on account of the meaning to be expressed, because the preterite *could* is tending to be restricted to the modal use (*b*).

a. I regret that I am not able to lend you the book¹⁾.

I shall not be able to come again to-day.

I shall be pleased if I am able to be of service to you.

b. “— Now relate, please, exactly what you have been doing in this sweet old realm of Edward's. I won't say another word.”

We were able to relate a good deal, by taking turns, and poured it all out about Towse, . . .

Cotes, Cinderella ch. 6 p. 64.

But these forest flies, even when they came in legions about me, were not able to spoil my pleasure.

Hudson, Hampshire Days ch. 3 p. 66.

663. Sometimes *to be able* expresses the meaning of 655 (*a*), and also possibility (*b*); occasionally it is used with a passive stem in the same sense as *can* in 661 (*c*).

a. She never seemed able to look out of her window

1) *To be able* as an actual present is hardly used in other than negative sentences.

without seeing some hunched-up man or wrapped-up woman who was being helped up a flight of steps.

Mackenzie, Rich Relatives ch. 11 p. 268.

b. The discovery will enable science to determine the conditions in which the infection takes place, and it is expected that preventive measures will be able to be taken.

Everyman 3/1, 1913.

c. Certain books only were at the time of the compilation of this list in print and able to be purchased.

Poutsma I p. 94.

May and Might

664. *May* is used as an actual present to express the permission given by some person (*a*). It also expresses what is permitted by, or in accordance with, law, reason, rule, or morality; in this case it is naturally a neutral present (*b*).

a. You may go out when you have finished your work.
I am sure he may go out if he wants to.

b. The efforts required for these protracted hostilities may be said to have ruined both states.

Margoliouth, Mohammedanism p. 1. 18.

The delight and affection which he inspired in his own day he still inspires in ours, and will, one may be sure, in all that are to follow.

You may well look astonished.

Kingsley (Poutsma I p. 75).

In considering the equipment of the novelist there are two attributes which may always be taken for granted.

Eng. Rev. July, 1913.

Of the three Bills returned to the Lords this week under the Parliament Act, it is still possible that one may be passed with the consent of both Houses.

Nation, 12/7, 13.

665. *May* can also express the speaker's uncertainty with regard to an action, state, or occurrence (*a*). When

two sentences are contrasted there may be a concessive meaning (*b*).

a. He may get there in time if he walks fast.

He may not have done it although appearances are strong against him.

This may or may not¹⁾ be true.

b. It (i. e. Reason) may not be a perfect guide, but it is all we have, and he (Mr. Balfour) will not consent to forgo its use. Times Lit. 7/5, 14.

666. A third meaning of *may*, which is closely connected with the preceding, is possibility.

You may force fruit, but you cannot force flavour.

Fools may ask more questions than wise men can answer.

A woman with fair opportunities, and without an absolute hump, may marry whom she likes.

This meaning is found in affirmative sentences only, which is a sign of its connection with the meaning of 665. For negative sentences, expressing as they do the certainty of the speaker, must take *can*.

667. We have the same meaning as in the preceding section in interrogative sentences; in this case *may* expresses wonder or curiosity, although it is in the nature of a question to express uncertainty as well.

What may he be doing there down in the garden?

Sisters and brothers, little maid,

How many may you be? Wordsworth.

I wonder what I may have done to offend him.

1) *May not* is [mer npt] here, as *not* is emphatic owing to the contrast; see 48.

Might 668. The most important point to be observed with regard to the form *might* is that it may indeed be looked upon as a preterite of *may*, but is used as a modal preterite only; in other words, that *may* has no corresponding past tense. After dealing with the functions of *might*, therefore, we must consider why *may* has no past tense, and compare the words that might seem to supply what is sometimes called a 'deficiency', just as we have done in the case of *can* (662).

669. Modal *might* is used to express the meanings defined in 664 b; it differs from *may* in that it expresses more of uncertainty, or the speaker's diffidence, in making the statement (a). *Might* can also express the meanings of 665 and 666 (b). In all these cases a simple and a perfect plain stem can be used.

a. The old farm, now that the trees are bare, the skies bleak, and the roads frost-bound, is far other than it was in July, and a stranger, coming here for the first time might well wish, if he could, to recall the warmth, the foliage, and the sounds of the summer season.

Times W. 10/1, 18.

At this hour he should have been working at his book; and the fact that his idleness did not trouble him might well have given him uneasiness.

Galsworthy, Fraternity ch. 20 p. 164.

b. "Do you think I dislike your company, Sibyl?" — "Well, no, not exactly, but you might if I gave you too much of it."

Might it not be well to warn Brian it was not well to play fast and loose with a girl's affections?

Some leading hounds had fallen to rise no more; others had retreated yelping to their kennels, to lie quiet for a while, till time might give them courage for a new attack. Trollope, Three Clerks p. 394.

The Dynasts on the stage might, but probably will

not, be a lesson to those who divide works of art into classes¹). Times Lit. 19/2, 1920.

Tacitus was not quite impartial in his account of the Germans... But Tacitus, though he might have been rather inclined to favour the Germans, was mainly a scientific observer. Ker, Medieval English Literature.

Peter might have known, and very likely did, the inside of a pawnbroker's. Dickens, Christmas Carol st III (p. 88; compare also ib. p. 99. 5).

He was only afraid that something might have occurred to vex you.

670. When *might* expresses uncertainty or possibility two sentences may be contrasted, with the result that the *might*-clause has a concessive function, like a subordinate concessive adverb clause.

Progress might be slow, but it was sure... Dr. Hall might snort when he heard of it, asking, with a growl, what a soldier wanted with a tooth-brush; but the good work went on. Strachey, Eminent Victorians p. 132 f.

For that indefatigable disciple did, indeed, never desert her. He might be impatient, he might be restless, but he remained. ib. p. 164.

671. Occasionally we find *might* as what seems to be a real past tense expressing permission, or what is reasonable. The use is exclusively literary, unless, indeed, we can look upon the cases as really indirect style.

There were three long weeks in that large bed for Dicky before he might see the fields again or feel the touch.

The wounds that hurt are the unintended ones, the side blows dealt by the professed lovers of poetry, by

1) The parallelism between *might* and *will* shows very clearly that the two forms do not differ with regard to time. The use of *might* as a secondary past tense in indirect style is treated, as in the other cases, in vol. 3 (*Concord of Tense*).

the professed friends of the poets. We may not quarrel with these, for they are genuine friends; but it would be hard if we might not describe them to themselves, in the hope of a better understanding.

Henry Newbolt, English Rev. April 1914 p. 11.

May and Might in Subordinate Clauses **672.** Both *may* and *might*, in the functions dealt with until now, are used in subordinate as well as main clauses. But in subordinate clauses they are sometimes used when the main clause indicates by its verb that uncertainty or possibility are thought of. The consequence is that *may* and *might* come to be auxiliaries of modality supplementary to the idea expressed by the main clause instead of being indispensable elements of the predicate. In all these cases *might* is naturally a secondary past tense.

Some uses are rather literary than spoken English, though all of them are current. It will be useful, therefore, to deal with the constructions that may be considered the substitutes of the purely literary ones; see 680.

673. *May* and *might* occur in a meaning that may be defined as uncertainty or possibility in a number of clauses. It is often doubtful whether the case is really different from the use in main clauses, and we may frequently hesitate between defining the clause as suggesting uncertainty or possibility. The two forms occur:

- (1) in clauses subordinate to a main clause expressing wish, desire, hope, fear, demand.

We hope that this may be of some interest to the general reader.

It is hoped that this book may be read with profit by the experimental as well as the theoretical physicist.
Preface to a recent scientific work by R. L. de Kronig.

In September 1645, the blow fell that poor Ralph had

so much dreaded, and which he had hoped to the last might have been averted. Mem. Verney Fam. II p. 216.

Sir Walter Raleigh expresses the hope that voluntary helpers may be found to give their services.

Times Lit. 2/9, 15.

Of course he hoped that his boy might succeed.

When Jasper took leave of Alfred Yule, the latter expressed a wish that they might have a walk together one of these mornings. Gissing, New Grub Street ch. 2.

I desired he might come to me into my study.

He demanded that a large vessel might be detained.

I had still my hopes that all this folly would gradually die away; that the Lambs might move out of the neighbourhood; might die, or might run away with attorneys' apprentices, and that quiet and simplicity might be again restored to the community.

Their father felt...not a little anxious lest his children might be going to thaw too.

- (2) in clauses subordinate to an affirmative main clause expressing possibility, and also, though rarely, probability (*it is possible, probable, likely*).

It is possible that he may come to-morrow.

It was just possible, he thought, that the trick he was going to play, might succeed.

- (3) in relative clauses referring to an antecedent with an indefinite meaning.

A tactful teacher may get them to take pleasure in preserving every drawing or map which they may make.

It was not easy to find any expedient which might avert the danger.

- (4) in adverb clauses:

a. of purpose, introduced by *that, so that, lest*.

I say all this that you may understand what I mean to do.

He kept no copy of his letter, so that he might be unable to show her his very words when she should ask to see them. Trollope, Last Chronicle ch. 47.

A ring was made, and there was silence, so that the prefects might not be attracted, because fighting in the Lower School was forbidden.

Walpole, Fort. I ch. 5 § 3 p. 58.

She looked at the clock; she had a little spasm of nervousness lest Cyril might fail to keep his word on that first day of their new regular life together.

Bennett, Old W. Tale II ch. 6 § 1 p. 245.

In a sudden flutter of fear lest the Bigwigs might observe the operation, she drew back.

Galsworthy, Frelands ch. 8, p. 94.

"I didn't know about earls", he said rather hastily, lest Mr. H. might feel it impolite in him not to have wished to be one. Burnett, Fauntleroy ch. 2.

b. of concession.

Whatever faults they may have had, neither Tacitus nor Carlyle was dull. Times Lit. 29/7, 15.

But it was a fresh discovery for all that, a new mode of thought, whatever its source might be.

Ker, Engl. Lit. p. 88.

May and Might Compared with Related Constructions 674. It may be useful finally to compare *may* and *might* with a number of constructions that are more or less evidently and truly similar in meaning. We shall deal with:

- (1) *to be allowed*;
- (2) the adverb *perhaps*;
- (3) *can* and *could*;
- (4) the future with *shall* and *will*.

On *may not* and *must not*, see 688.

May and To be allowed 675. In comparing *may* and *might* with *to be allowed* it must be remembered that the verbal group with *be* expresses two meanings, as explained in the sections on the participle (56 ff.): it

may express a state but also an occurrence. It is only with *to be allowed* in the former meaning that we need deal here, for it is in that case only that it approaches the sense of *may*.

When *allowed* is used as a verbal adjective it is sometimes called a substitute for the 'defective' forms of *may*. On this term *defective* the reader may consult 651. But *to be allowed* cannot be said to form a suppletive system with *may* and *might* any more than *to be able* (or *capable*) can be said to form a suppletive system with *can* and *could*, as shown in 662.

676. When *may* expresses permission it is a permission thought of as existing, without any indication of an action or occurrence that has produced it. *To be allowed*, on the other hand, naturally expresses the meaning of a verbal adjective in id, i.e. it denotes the state as the result of a preceding action or occurrence. Hence we must use it to express the future or the perfect: *I shall be allowed to go*, *I have been allowed to go*. The difference is quite clear when we compare these two sentences: *I suppose you may do that* and *I suppose you will be allowed to do that*. For the same reason we do not use *may* in the past tense, but say: *I was not allowed to go out*.

Another consequence of the difference of meaning between the two constructions is that *to be allowed* denotes that the permission is given by another than the speaker (*You will be allowed to leave your room in a day or two*), whereas *may* expresses the speaker's permission (*You may leave your room in a day or two*), or the speaker's report of a permission that has been given.

It is also natural that *to be allowed* should be little used in the present tense, and hardly, if at all, in the actual present.

May and Perhaps 677. *May* expressing uncertainty is closely allied with *perhaps*. The difference between the two is that *may* expresses the uncertainty of the speaker, *perhaps* the speaker's idea that the facts are uncertain. It is clear that one form cannot always be substituted for the other, and even when this is possible it does not mean that the two forms express the same meaning (*a*). We sometimes find the two ways combined (*b*).

a. What sort of weather are we going to have? — It doesn't look very promising at present, but you never know! Perhaps the sun will come out presently.

Collinson, Spoken Engl. p. 30.

This is a windy place and no mistake! The windows were rattling all night and there was an awful draught — Perhaps we shall get on better to-night, the wind has dropped considerably.

ib. p. 36.

Do you take milk and sugar? — Just a little milk and two lumps of sugar, please. — Perhaps you'd better add the milk yourself.

ib. p. 38.

Peter did not mind the silence — it was perhaps safer — and so long as he was home by six o'clock he could spend the day where he pleased.

Walpole, Fort. I ch. 3 p. 26.

To see life only through books would be perhaps worse than physical blindness.

Baker, Uses of Libr. p. 5.

b. Nowadays the line is clearly drawn: it is easy to tell which appointments are political and which administrative. Perhaps such a line may always have existed; he would be a bold man who tried to draw it before the reign of Edward II.

Engl. Hist. Rev. Jan. 1929 p. 130.

Can and May 678. It has been stated that *can* as well as *may* can express possibility in affirmative sentences. But the word *possibility* has various meanings: *can* expresses the possibility that is the result of qualities

inherent in the subject of the verb, or of circumstances concerning the subject; *may* expresses possibility provided by some person other than the subject of the verb (i. e. permission) or by circumstances outside the subject.

The distinction can be exemplified by the quotation from Walpole, in 677 a. The boy *could spend the day where he pleased*, i. e. his life was arranged in such a way; if *might* had been used it would have meant that somebody had told him 'You may spend the day where you please', which is not the meaning intended. We can say: *You may go* and *You can go*. But there is a difference. *You may go* expresses that the speaker (or somebody else) gives the permission. *You can go* expresses that there are no conditions that prohibit the person's going. It would be said e. g. to a boy who had been informed that he would have to finish his work before going out. When he tells his father that his work is finished the father may answer: *You can go then*, i. e. the circumstances prohibiting your going have been removed. See 648.

Alice, if you have finished your breakfast, you can go.
Benson, *The Weaker Vessel*.

679. When no subject is thought of and the stem accompanying the auxiliary is a passive group it seems indifferent whether *can* or *may* is used. See 661.

The "Independent" can be had of any newsagent in the country or may be obtained direct from the offices.

The whole 27 Volumes can now be had in uniform style and binding for 3 guineas, or any volume may be had separately, price 2/6.

Sampson Low, Marston & Co.

The lecture may be bought for 3 pence; and the slides can be had free of charge.

May and the Future **680.** In describing the use of *may* in subordinate clauses (672 f.) it has been mentioned that there are alternative constructions in some cases. One of these is the group-future with *shall* and *will*, which is more frequent in the first two cases of 673, than *may*.

He was not in the least afraid that she would cause his feelings to change towards Kate.

Patterson, Compton.

I have no fear that there will be any permanent estrangement between the public opinion of the two countries.

Daily News.

The telegram which our Vienna correspondent sends us lends strength to the hope that a definitive settlement in the Balkans will be reached.

Times W.

It is hoped that they (i. e. the books of a new series) will appeal to teachers of English literature who are seeking books with a practical bias.

Cambridge Univ. Press.

681. Instead of *may* in the cases of 673, 3 and 4b current English generally has the predicative verb or verb group without an auxiliary.

Whatever happens, it (viz. the effort) will, we are convinced, not be wasted.

New Statesman 11/1, 1919.

Must

682. *Must* is chiefly used as a present tense to express necessity. This may be:

- (1) a necessity imposed by circumstances, including the will of a person. If it is the will of another person than the subject of the sentence, *must* expresses an urgent command or an insistent request (*a*); if it is the will of the subject of the sentence, *must* expresses a firm determination (*b*).

a. I must go home now; father told me to be quick.
Tom, you must go with us to Mr. B.

You must obey nurse, children.

You must not expect me to help you.

b. I must and will have my own way.

He is not content with a ring and a bracelet, but he must have rings in the ears, rings on the nose — rings everywhere. Wordsworth, NED. s. v. *must*, 4.

(2) a necessity imposed by circumstances in general (*a*) or relative to some end (*b*).

a. All men must die.

People who live in an island must be tolerant of the sensitiveness of races less happily situated, in the matter of their neighbours and their landmarks.

Times Lit. 6/1, 21.

b. A considerable latitude must be allowed in the discussion of public affairs, *or the liberty of the press will be no benefit to society*.

The judges criticise Parliament, and they in their turn must accept criticism upon their order.

The room, you must know (i. e. in order to understand what I am going to tell you), was long and low with a raftered ceiling. Bar. Orczy, Meadowsweet ch. I.

683. *Must* can also be used as a neutral present to express the inferred or presumed certainty of a fact.

What's it like out this morning? Bitterly cold, the temperature must be well below freezing-point.

Collinson, Spoken English p. 30.

He must be an old man, now.

Those who are in the habit of remarking such matters must have noticed the passive quiet of an English landscape on Sunday.

Coleridge must have earned a substantial sum by these lectures.

Between two and three hundred thousand written papers of one sort or another must have passed under my view.

If he says so it must be true.

Under such conditions there must have arisen mixed dialects, mainly English, but containing many Danish words. Bradley, *Making of English* p. 31.

684. *Must* is used, both as a present (*a*) and as a past tense (*b*), to denote some foolish or annoying action or some untoward event.

a. So you must always be meddling, must you?

The goal was immensely far off. His haste was as absurd and as fine as that of a man who, starting to cross Europe on foot, must needs run to get out of Calais and be fairly on his way. Bennett, *Roll-Call*, I ch. 8 § 3.

b. This fellow had no money, but she must needs become engaged to him — a harum-scarum, unpractical chap, who would get himself into no end of difficulties.

Galsworthy, *Man of Property* I ch. 2.

His ridiculous pride must nevertheless inquire whether Caroline had been begging this for him.

Meredith, *Harrington* ch. 39, p. 404.

He had sketched these personages for good or evil, in his Lectures, and there he might have left them to the judgment of posterity. But he must needs ask them to play their part in the drama of *Esmond*; and it may be said that his characters are never further from reality than when they bear real names.

Whibley, *Thackeray* p. 182 f.

685. *Must* is used with a perfect stem in the function of a modal preterite. This use is probably literary rather than spoken English.

If he had looked, he must have seen the light of the approaching train.

Even if Rembrandt had not been an artist of genius, he must have aroused our interest more than almost any other Dutch painter: so rich and varied is the work he left behind him.

Had he (i. e. Gibbon) attempted to know the ultimate causes of the decline and fall of the Roman Empire, he must have failed egregiously, childishly.

686. The use of *must* as a secondary past tense (past tense of concord) will be dealt with in vol. 3 (*Concord of Tense*). It is often difficult to decide whether a form is used in this way or in direct style (*a*); but the following cases under *b* can hardly be other than illustrations of *must* as a direct past tense.

a. Beyond the fields was a wood through which he must pass before he reached Stephen's farm, and as the trees closed about him and he heard the rain driving through the bare branches the world seemed full of chattering noises. Walpole, Fort., I ch. 7 § 2 p. 81.

When nobles entertained the King or other noblemen, they must needs furnish the entertainment adjudged at Court as best. But few kept a household on the petty royal scale of the Earl of Northumberland... So they must find other means to provide singers, dancers, jugglers, tumblers, and actors as occasion required.

Wallace, Drama p. 118 f.

In this case the boy had a right to the stage, and so the mother must stand in the wings.

Malet, Calmady, ch. 6.

At last the moment had arrived when Lord Fane must get down to the (race) course.

Garvice, Staunch p. 251.

b. The criticism which he puts forward could not be suppressed, it must find light some time or another.

Times Lit. 15/1, 20.

He laboured indefatigably, partly because his life was a long struggle to keep the wolf from the door; partly because a man of his temperament and active brain must so labour, willy-nilly.

Athenaeum 2/12, 11.

The first example under *b* might possibly be interpreted as a case of 684; the second of 683.

Must not 687. *Must not* expresses a more or less urgent prohibition (*a*). It has an essentially identical meaning when used in the first person (*b*).

a. In India, when you leave your hotel and want to tip the sweeper, you must not hold out the coin, expecting him to take it. Huxley, Vulgarity p. 4.

This volume must not be taken into Great Britain or
the Colonies. Nelson's Continental Library.

b. I can't — mustn't — depend on your charity any longer — it has been too long as it is.

Walpole, Fort. II ch. 4 § 3 p. 191.

688. The difference between *may not* and *must not* is the effect of the meaning of *may* expressing permission (664 a) and *must* expressing necessity. *May not* consequently denotes that no permission will be given, or has been given, either by the speaker or by somebody else, according to the situation. *Must not* expresses that there are facts, rules, or circumstances prohibiting the action. This is excellently illustrated by van der Gaaf (*Engl. Studien* 62 p. 411): "If a patient asked his doctor, 'May I get up now?', the answer, if it had to be in the negative, would probably be, 'No, you mustn't get up yet', i. e. it is not advisable, expedient. The patient's wife, however, might say, 'My husband may not get up yet', i. e. the doctor will not let him. A mother might say, 'No, Jackie, you may not have that apple, you have been naughty', but not 'You may not pull pussy's tail'."

These differences are also illustrated by the story of a railway-guard telling a traveller: "You may not smoke here, Sir." At the next station: "You must not smoke here, Sir." At last, in an angry tone: "You shan't smoke here, Sir!"

Shall and Should

689. *Shall* has been grouped with *should*, but it will be necessary to treat the forms separately in most cases in spite of their similarity. We must also deal separately with the uses that are peculiar to subordinate clauses.

It might seem reasonable to begin with the strong-stressed forms, as in other auxiliaries. But the stressed uses of *shall* are not the essential uses, being due to contrasting stress, both with *not* and without. For this reason we shall begin with weak-stressed *shall* in the cases when it expresses something of an independent meaning.

690. *Shall* with weak stress is used to express a promise, warning or threat; the second and third persons only are used. When the plain stem is not repeated, as in the last example, *shall* has strong stress.

Although the doctor says my heart is wrong, you shall always find it in the right place.

Ainger, Life, p. 346.

I fear your master is one who looks to the sense more than to the grammar! But never mind, you and I shall be much together, and as you are so fond of Plato you shall read him with me.

Shorthouse, John Inglesant, ch. 2, p. 25.

Well, get to bed quickly and Ruth shall send up cups of hot gruel.

"You shall hear from me before long," shouted Powell.
Conrad, Chance.

Then, Kitty, let 'yes' be the answer.

We'll dance at the 'Varsity Ball,
And the morning shall find you a dancer
In Christ Church or Trinity Hall.

A Letter, in Echoes from the Oxford Magazine..

What think you he said in my hearing, Andreas?
That mine was a dog's vocation! Well, he shall find that
a dog can bite. Buchanan, That Winter Night ch. 8.

"Well, are you ready?" "I don't feel quite right."
"Oh, I see, your stirrups are too long; Alfred shall
shorten them a little." Sweet, Spoken English p. 71.

Wait awhile here and watch. You shall see that no
two men, women, or boys, nor two horses or ponies,
will go through this performance, which seems so simple,
in the same temper and style. His prophecy was exactly
fulfilled. Dean Hole, Mem. p. 31.

"Let's make the experiment." "Why 'experiment'?
Is it such a difficult or dangerous enterprise?" "You
shall see." Sweet, Spoken English p. 77¹⁾.

Mrs. Liddell said one day: "Oh, Mr. Thackeray, you
must let Dobbin marry Amelia." "Well," he replied,
"he shall, and when he has got her, he will not find her
worth having." Whibley, Thackeray p. 96.

691. Closely allied to the use in the preceding section
is *shall* in the first and third persons in interrogative
sentences, to inquire after the will or wish of the person
addressed.

"Shall I shut the door Mother?" — "Please, darling."
Galsworthy, Freeland ch. 16.

"Shall I turn on the gas?" she said.

Walpole, Fort. II ch. 1 § 3 p. 156.

To begin with, then, I find that there are many occasions
when, strictly speaking, I *mean* nothing at all, but
am using the word²⁾ merely to express a dislike — as
a term of abuse, a politer synonym, shall we say, of
'bloody'. Huxley, Vulgarity p. 2.

Shall John go first?

692. Strong-stressed *shall* can express the will of the

1) The phonetic transcription is [juw ſl sij].

2) i. e. *vulgar*.

speaker with regard to somebody else's action, experience, or state; consequently, it is restricted to the use of the second and third persons. The meaning may be that of a command, but also a firm determination or promise on the part of the speaker. For the formal peculiarities of the group *shall not*, see 23.

You shan't have any; you have been most rude.

The strong stress in this use denotes the contrast that is implied. In sentences that are not negative the suggestion is that the person addressed wishes to oppose the will of the speaker.

693. Weak-stressed *shall* with a plain stem is used in declarative sentences in the first person (*I* and *we*) to express what concerns a future time. When the verb is accompanied by *not*, or used without a plain stem because this can be inferred from a preceding sentence, *shall* has strong stress, as usual.

For myself, when I see a thing I hate I can't help fighting against it. I shall never be able to help that.

Galsworthy, Frelands ch. 37.

We shall be very late, I'm afraid.

I want you to post this letter for me. I shall have finished it by the time you are ready.

Sweet, Element. no. 67.

When we add that the work of Mr. Thomas Hardy is barely touched on, we shall have said enough to show that the Professor's book is not adequate for modern lovers of poetry. *Athenaeum* 31/5, 1913.

694. Future *shall* (i. e. *shall* according to 693) may naturally express a threat or a promise, according to the meaning of the plain stem and the situation (*a*). It may also express a firm determination (*b*), especially in negative sentences (*c*).

a. I shall punish you severely if you do that again.

b. "They are going to settle it," Eustace heard the barrister who was reporting for the Times say to his assistant. "They always do settle every case of public interest," grunted the long man in answer; "we shan't see the will now. Well, I *shall* get an introduction to Miss Smithers and ask her to show it to me."

Haggard, Meeson's Will ch. 19.

c. "Grandmother," she whispered, "I shall not wait for the sermon." Allen, Mettle of the Pasture.

There is a little wayward word
That won't agree or give or grant,
A negative too often heard —
The female "shan't!"
"I won't!" a man will flatly say,
Or helplessly admit he can't;
But ladies have another way —
They always "shan't".

Punch, Febr. 20, 1907.

Shopkeepers' wives hailed her appealingly —
"Sha'n't (*sic*) keep you half a second! Do tell us!"
Pett Ridge, Name of Garland.

"Richard of course is wearing a tail-coat," she murmured.

"I shan't," he ¹⁾ whispered, "when *we* are married. I shall wear tweeds, and you shall wear your white frieze coat . . . the one in which I first saw you."

Mackenzie, Guy and Pauline p. 383.

In the last quotation the parallelism of *I shan't* and *I shall wear* [ai ſl weə] is evident; both express the speaker's determination.

695. In interrogative sentences *shall* is used as an auxiliary of the group-future in the first and second persons.

In pronominal questions it is weak-stressed; in other-

1) i. e. Guy.

cases, including the enclitic questions of 425 ff., the form may be [ʃæl] with a stronger stress.

Shall I be in time, do you think?

People get frightened, and think they, too, are going to die. Shall you be frightened, I wonder?

B. Harraden, Ships that Pass in the Night ch. 15.

"Shall you write and say you're coming?"

"Oh, no! Just go and take our chance..."

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 30 p. 320.

wij dgampt ap ən :sed 'whot ə pleis! ən whot weðə!
ned! ned! whot ʃəl wij duw?'

Sweet, Sp. Engl. p. 51.

"When is the funeral?" — "Friday". —

"Where shall you live in the meantime?"

Gissing, A Lodger in Maze Pond.

696. The quotations of 695 show that interrogative *shall you* may express a question about the intention or determination of the person addressed, similar to declarative *shall* in 694. We have a 'pure' future especially when the plain stem expresses a state, not an action.

Shall is also used in what has been called the *inferential future*. This use is another special case of *shall* as an auxiliary of the future (Fries, *Language* volume 3 p. 87—96); as *will* is used in the same way, it seems most convenient to treat this use in the sections in which *shall* and *will* are compared.

The use of *shall* and *will* to express the future in indirect style requires separate treatment; see 733 ff.

697. *Should* is exclusively used as a modal preterite¹⁾. Its meanings are parallel to those of *shall*, but not identical with it.

1) Apart from its use as a secondary past tense in indirect style, on which see vol. 3 (*Concord of Tense*).

Should is used in all persons, to express an obligation or duty, generally of a social or moral nature. This use is parallel to *shall* in 690.

I should call on them, I know; but I must say I hate calling on people I have nothing to say to.

You should not speak so loud; it is bad manners.

As it should do, the death of Nelson inspires Mr. Hardy; and in the part which relates thereto we find his versification at its best.

Should all the legends of the nursery, of the hamlet, and of the village fireside be considered merely as an amalgam of the superstitions of the uneducated with the finer fancies of some poetic minds?

A friendly dog lay among the croquet hoops on the lawn, a pleasant, silent dog, who wagged his tail when I came round the corner and saw no reason why he should bark and sniff. Eliz. in Rügen.

698. In rhetorical questions or exclamations *should* is often used to reject a suggestion, or to express surprise or disapproval of a course of action.

"Why on earth should I want to wear a mask? I've got nothing to hide." Winning Post 1922 p. 51.

Why should her husband spend so much time in the coffee-shop? Strand Magazine 1909 p. 11.

How should a man, still on the right side of 25, not be happy? ib. 1924 p. 611.

Why should you stay in London in this hot weather. Bibesco¹⁾.

When Swithin approached his usual seat, who should be sitting there but Rozsi! Galsworthy, Caravan p. 23.

Last Sunday we drove over to Dunkeld to Church, and whom should I meet coming out but Sir John Millais. Ainger, Life p. 142.

1) These quotations have been borrowed from Engl. Studies, Febr. 1929 Suppl. p. 4.

Midas was enjoying himself in his treasure-room one day as usual, when a shadow fell over the heaps of gold; and, looking suddenly up, what should he see but the figure of a stranger, standing in the bright and narrow sunbeam!

The following quotation suggests that the rhetorical use is a development of the case of 697.

Why should he imagine that he was able to write?
Walpole, *Fortitude* II ch. 1 § 2, p. 155.

699. We also find *shall* in rhetorical questions, but this use is exclusively literary.

So the general impression left by this book is that the unity of Western civilization is still a matter of speculation and hope. But in mere faith there is something magnificent, and who shall say that it shall not prevail?

Times Lit. 24/2, 16.

Mr. Partington's book has its shortcomings, and yet who shall dare to lower his thumbs? *ib.* 16/9, 20.

For many months, the average of deaths during these voyages was 74 in the thousand; the corpses were shot out into the waters; and who shall say that they were the most unfortunate.

Lytton Strachey, *Em. Vict.* p. 128.

700. We also find *should* used to express that an occurrence or state is highly probable. Compare 738.

Providing that the Megantic meets with favourable weather she should make Belle Isle to-morrow night and Liverpool by noon on Saturday. *Morning Leader.*

To-day should be an ideal one for the London skaters, as it is probable that the ice in some of the London County Council ponds may reach the official minimum of three inches. *Daily News*, 3/2, 12.

Farmers in the late districts are better off (viz. than in the early districts) for even now, if they can get continuous sunshine, they should have a satisfactory harvest; but in the earlier districts considerable damage

has been done, the rains being so heavy as to beat the corn to the ground. Daily Chronicle.

We gather from *Notes and Queries* that a book on Anonymous and Pseudonymous Literature is to be expected at the end of the year from Mr. W. P. Courtney. A work from so careful and competent a hand should be of considerable value. Athenaeum.

701. That this is a special development of *should* expressing a moral obligation seems to be shown by the following quotations.

Compare a similar development in *ought*, 647, 1.

Sir Percy Cox, the new High Commissioner for Mesopotamia, should reach Baghdad this week, if his movements are not impeded. The Mail, 22/9, 1920.

The August number of *The Dickensian* should appeal to the many Americans now staying in this country, for it is devoted entirely to Dickens and America.

Athenaeum.

As an old pupil and assistant of Lord Kelvin, Prof. Gray is particularly fitted to write such a book, which should appeal to all interested in the history of physical science. ib.

702. *Should* is also used to express the determination or promise of the speaker. Compare *shall* in 692.

If the book were in the library it should be at your service.

You should do it if we could make you.

They should have had it if they had asked for it.

703. *Should* with a simple or complex plain stem occurs in the main clause of a hypothetical compound sentence, in the first person in statements, in the first and second persons in questions.

I can only speculate about the truth of any of these rumours and if I knew the facts I should not be allowed to publish them. Times W. 9/11, 17.

I should have preferred to stop longer if I had been able to afford the time.

"I thought Mr. Fenwick was going to kiss me!"

"Should you have minded if he had?"

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 14 p. 139.

Should in Sub-
ordinate Clauses

704. *Should* as a modal preterite is frequent in subordinate clauses, in meanings that can be paralleled with its use in main clauses, but are not always identical with it.

As *should* is a modal preterite, its use is independent of the tense of the main clause. In literary, perhaps rather archaic, English *shall* is sometimes used in the same way; in order to promote an insight into the system of *shall* and *should* in the mind of a speaker of living English, and its relations with *will* and *would*, these purely literary uses are treated separately, in the chapter on *Archaic English* in vol. 2.

705. *Should* as a modal preterite is used in subordinate clauses when the main clause expresses an act of the will, or a wish; the verb of the main clause may be in a present (*a*) or in a past (*b*) tense. The first three quotations contain *should* in a meaning that is similar to the case of 697, and *ought* could be substituted, causing a slight difference only. In the other cases this would be perfectly impossible.

a. It is generally unfair to demand that an analogy should be complete down to minute details.

Times Ed. S. 31/7, 19.

They recommend that classes in secondary schools should be smaller. ib. 28/2, 12.

It follows, therefore, that the important thing is to secure that those who teach history in schools should be qualified by their knowledge and special gifts to do so.

Prof. Firth, *History IV* no. 14 p. 79.

The proposal is that each year the Board should submit to Government a budget estimate of the sums required. Times Ed. S. 25/9, 19.

Do you know what it is to want that something should belong to you, belong entirely to you, and to no one else? Walpole, Secret City ch. 8 p. 45.

If he is not to come back to me victorious, I should prefer that he should never come back. Times W. 26/1, 17.

b. Before they all retired it was settled that the whole party should drive over on the following day to inspect the parsonage. Trollope, Barchester.

It was no wonder that Dr. Grantley did not like John Bold and that his wife's suggestion that he should become closely connected with such a man dismayed him.

Trollope, Barchester.

He could not but wish that Dorothea should think him not less happy than the world would expect her successful suitor to be. Eliot, Middlemarch ch. 10, p. 60.

Her maidenliness had not permitted that she should show herself to Mr. Scales.

Bennett, Old W. Tale I ch. 6 § 2 p. 116.

He had prayed that a speculation involving some thousands of pounds should be successful.

Temple Thurston, City I ch. 2.

He reached for the marmalade and requested that a bowl of Devonshire cream should be passed along.

Fergus Hume, Red Money p. 10.

For a short time they walked in silence. It was Grace's suggestion that they should walk.

Hobbes, Some Emotions II ch. 1.

It was Cynthia's wish that the engagement should be kept secret. Gaskell, Wives.

Michael had been careful that all his heavy luggage should be sent in advance. Sinister Street p. 499.

706. Very similar to the preceding use is that of *should* in adverb clauses of purpose introduced by *that*, *so that*, *that ... not*, and also, in literary English, by *lest*.

She saw them begin to mount the steps, those behind raising their arms so that the hurdle should be level.

Galsworthy, *Freelands* ch. 29 p. 367.

Peter's father turned about very sharply so that she should not see he was fool enough to weep.

Wells, *Joan and Peter* ch. 1 § 1.

It is at this period that the Foreign Office, with praiseworthy foresight, appears to have begun its preparations, so that when the time came it should not be taken unawares.

Times Lit. 13/1, 21.

She was a great horny, overbearing woman, was Mrs. Sales Wilson, and Sally was frightened lest Laetitia should grow like her.

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 15 p. 144.

707. *Should* is used in a meaning very similar to the one described in 703, in relative clauses, with an antecedent noun taken in a general sense. This use is chiefly literary English.

He would be a bold man who should declare that its popularity has very materially diminished at the present day.

Ward, *Dickens*, ch. 2. p. 20.

He who should (i.e. if there were such) pretend to learn a language by theory and rules would resemble a person who would (i.e. should want to) learn to walk by the theory of equilibrium.

It is difficult to conceive a generation which should be indifferent to the mellow charm, the rich rustic poetry of Blackmore's 'Lorna Doone'.

A traveller who should walk and observe any of these visitants as Venn observed them now could feel himself to be in direct communication with regions unknown to man.

Hardy, *Native I* ch. 10 p. 104 f.

708. In Spoken English *should* is similarly used:

(1) in adverb clauses of time. This use also suggests *shall* as an auxiliary of the future.

His eyes were watching for the moment when the accounts should be finished and Stephen free.

Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 3 § 2 p. 31.

He found that when a little practice should have hardened his palms against blistering he would be able to work with ease. Hardy, Native IV ch. 2. p. 311.

(2) in adverb clauses of condition (*a*) or concession (*b*).

a. If he should come tell him I shall be back soon.

Should it be thought that a menace from Central Asia is still remote, we may point out that the way into Persia from Armenia and Transcaucasia lies open and ready for immediate use. Times W. 29/3, 18.

b. He would sit on a wet rock, with a rod as large and heavy as a Tartar's lance, and fish all day without a murmur, even though he should not be encouraged by a single nibble. W. Irving, Sketch-Book.

709. *Should* as a modal preterite is also used in a meaning that may be connected with the preterite of obligation (697), but with very much weakened force, when the main clause expresses an opinion as to the correctness or justice of the observation mentioned in the subordinate clause. This observation is presented as being generally accepted, not peculiar to the subject of the main clause.

It was absurd that he should mind that rebuff.

Walpole, Fort. II ch. 6 § 2 p. 207 f.

After what had happened it was impossible that he should not doubt the honesty of Wildeve's intentions.

Hardy, Native I ch. 9 p. 96.

It was impossible that this should continue for long.

Temple Thurston, Antagonists I ch. 11 p. 85.

It seemed incredible that one so young should have done so much. Maxwell, Gabrielle (T.) p. 115.

It seemed almost incredible that the sound produced

by so small a stick as a woodpecker's beak striking against a tree should be audible at that distance.

Hudson, Hampshire Days ch. 1 p. 11.

There is not the remotest possibility of any one's calling upon me, and that I should call upon any one else is a thing undreamt of¹).

Gissing, Ryecroft II p. 6 f.

710. *Should* has a purely modal function without expressing any independent meaning at all; it emphasizes the personal character of the feeling or opinion with regard to the fact expressed in the subordinate clause. This use is not always to be clearly distinguished from the preceding case.

He was surprised that she should be so glad.

Walpole, Duchess of Wrexham ch. 6.

It seemed almost dreadful they should be able to sing like that. Galsworthy, Freeland ch. 29.

It was very strange to her that it should so happen, but, having happened, it did not seem unnatural.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 20, p. 192.

Strange that he should have rushed into his dream with eyes open. Meredith, Harrington ch. 18.

"Oh, Dick!" exclaimed Hilary in a mock woeful voice, "that I should live to hear you make pretty speeches².)"

Sidgwick, Grasshoppers ch. 7.

It is an interesting record of the pulse of the present day that 'An Englishwoman's Love Letters' should have taken Society by storm in the way it certainly has.

M. Fairless, Road-Mender.

It seems odd that we should have met again after so many years in the very place where we used to go to school together.

Sweet, Element. no. 65.

1) Observe that the clause, though subordinate, is not dependent upon the main clause. For the distinction, see vol. 3 on *Sentence-Structure*.

2) Note that the sentence is formally independent, except for the introductory *that*.

Moreover, we could not bear the idea that she should labour for her keep.

Blackmore, *Lorna Doone* ch. 46 p. 318.

He well deserves that we should say a few words about his own work first. *Athenaeum*, 16/11, 12.

It is characteristic of Addison that a political paper like the *Freeholder* should be flavoured with the humour and badinage he found so effective in the *Spectator*.

Dennis, *Age of Pope* p. 133.

"I am always glad to see your countrymen," Mr. Westgate pursued. "I thought it would be time some of you should be coming along."

James, *Daisy Miller* p. 123.

Unlike Mr. Justice Darling, we are disposed to treat with the utmost gravity the fact that such charges should even be possible. *Times W.* 7/6, 18.

He seemed distressed that there should be no *vesta*¹⁾ in his overcoat pocket.

de Morgan, *A Likely Story* ch. 1 p. 3.

She put her finger on the pulse, but it was hard to find. The fever had left him for the time being, but its work was done. It was wonderful, though, that he should have so much life in him for speech.

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 24 p. 257.

Whoever reads this story carelessly may see little excuse for her that she should lose her head at the bedside of a dying man. It was really no matter for surprise that she should do so. *ib.* ch. 24 p. 260.

Pauline had been looking forward to the entrance of February with joyful remembrance of what last February had brought her; and that the anniversary of Guy's declaration of his love should be heralded by such a discomfiture of their plans was a shock^{2).}

Mackenzie, *Guy and Pauline* p. 301.

711. The interpretation of the function of *should* in the

1) A kind of match.

2) See the note to the last quotation of 709.

cases of 709 f. is supported by the fact that we also find the same kinds of clauses without this auxiliary. In this construction the modal implications referred to in 709 f. are naturally absent, so that the action, occurrence, or state is plainly mentioned as an undoubted fact.

a. (709).

It is inconceivable that Huysmans — whatever he may have said — was not ravished by the secret beauty of his subjects, and did not exult in it.

Arnold Bennett, in English Rev., June 1913.

It is impossible that he and we can look on this question from the same point of view. Times W. 2/2, 17.

b. (710).

Be that as it may, they are not remembered in his will. And that being so, it is not strange that the Lormers came next after his own grandchild.

E. Everett-Green, Temptation of Mary Lister
ch. 9 p. 132.

Under these circumstances it is scarcely surprising that Mr. Mason considers some explanation necessary.

Everyman, 8/11, 12.

It is really remarkable that so large a field has been covered in one by no means unmanageable volume.

Athenaeum, 16/11, 22.

It was unfortunate that Mr. Mosher had completed his work before the appearance of Mr. Herbert's invaluable catalogue.

Mod. Lang. Notes, Nov. 1912.

Sophia was such a woman as, by a mere glance as she utters an opinion, will make a man say to himself, half in desire and half in alarm lest she reads him too: "By Jove! she must have been through a thing or two. She knows what people are!"

Bennett, Old W. Tale III ch. 4 § 1.

Yet, even though the work is still not finished, we cannot regret the time and labor bestowed.

Wallace, Evolution p. X.

It was natural for those who knew him and his work to trace the influence of Hooker and Dean Church.

Athenaeum, 21/12, 12.

It seems a great pity for the Postmaster-General to press the Marconi at a critical moment in the history of wireless telegraphy. Nation, 12/5, 13.

Not infrequently a verb with *should* is combined with a plain indicative.

She wondered why this should have been so, and why its strangeness had not impressed her before.

Bennett, Leonora ch. 7.

Have, Must, Ought, and Shall Compared

712. *To have, must, and shall* agree in expressing necessity, so that it is sometimes of little importance which of the three is used. There is generally a difference, however, and mostly a well-marked difference.

Shall (not *should*, apart from indirect style) is usually quite distinctly different from the other two, because it clearly expresses the determination of the speaker. The difference between *you (he) must* and *you (he) shall* is that *shall* suggests that the person spoken to, or spoken of, has given reasons to suppose that he does not wish to obey, or will refuse to obey, or that he has expressed this intention.

Both *must* and *to have* may express necessity. But necessity, if due to a personal will, can only be expressed by *must*. If it is due to circumstances it may be expressed by *must* or by *to have*. It may be useful, therefore, to compare *must* and *to have* in so far as they are used to express necessity due to circumstances.

This is expressed by *must*, not by *to have*, if it is the result of a logical inference, or of a law of nature. In these meanings the present tense only is wanted, apart from indirect style.

In its other meanings necessity due to circumstances can be expressed by either *must* or *to have*. The difference, if any, is that *must* is more emphatic.

The statements of this section are well illustrated by the following anecdote. It is usual for the whip of a Parliamentary party to send out notices to members asking them to be present when a vote of some importance will be taken. The formula is: "The Honourable Member for... is earnestly requested to be in his seat on Tuesday next." According to *Notes and Queries* (15 June 1895, quoted in *De Drie Talen*, 32 p. 172) a member observed one day at a meeting, according to a report: If the circular came without a dash or stroke under the word 'earnestly,' it meant that there was some business that might come on. If there were one dash under 'earnestly,' that the member *ought* to come. If two dashes, it meant that he *should* come. If three, that he *must* come. If four, it meant 'Stay away at your peril.'

713. Both *should* and *ought* are used as modal preterites, never as past tenses. The modal character of *ought*, as it is not supported by a parallel form for the present, is much weaker than that of *should*; in many cases *ought* can be considered a present tense.

The past tense for the expression of necessity is supplied by *have*.

The old atmosphere of distrust to which at first she had been so sensitive seemed to have lifted and they even began to talk to her a little. She had to speak to someone: even at Framlingham she had always been able to exchange a word or two during the day with some passing errand-boy or tradesman or customer, and her aunt's voice was always in her ears.

Freeman, Joseph ch. 13 p. 112.

Reuben Hallard he had written because he had to

write it¹), these four things he had written because he ought to write them²) . . . difference sufficient.

Walpole, *Fortitude II* ch. 7 p. 214.

Should and Might in Subordinate Clauses

714. After words expressing an act of the will the use of *should* is really the same as in principal sentences: it expresses the determination of the speaker; but in the subordinate clause the speaker is sometimes only vaguely referred to.

When *might* is used, possibility only is expressed; hence we specially find this auxiliary after verbs that convey a milder expression of a person's will, such as *wish*, *desire*. Note, however, that it is possible to use *should* also after these verbs; hence we find *should* in a clause dependent upon a verb denying the speaker's intention to impose his will:

I do not desire that others should go where I went.
Benson, *Thread of Gold*, p. 27.

The use of *would* in these clauses is less usual. In the following sentence it would be possible to substitute *might*, not *should*.

She prayed that Daisy Harland would soon reach London. Mackenzie, *Seven Ages of Woman*
ch. 3 p. 120.

In adverb clauses of purpose *should* has been explained as related to *should* expressing obligation (706). *May*, *might* in these clauses express possibility.

When they are introduced by *lest* the auxiliary *should* expresses a deprecated contingency of which there is danger; *might* expresses an unpleasant possibility.

1) An inner impulse.

2) Outward impulse: he was trying to get work as a journalist.

In adverb clauses of time, condition, and concession *should* serves to express the sometimes very slight degree of uncertainty that is inherent in all future actions, whereas *may* and *might* express possibility (NED.).

Will and Would

715. *Will* and the past tense *would* with strong stress are used in all persons to express the will of the subject of the sentence with regard to its own actions, experiences, or states.

"Well, I try to get the people what they want. It's hard work," said the young man.

"Well, I suppose, if you didn't some one else would. They will have it, won't they?"

"Yes, they will have it." H. James, *Reverberator*.

"Why, you unnatural little rascal!" cried the justly enraged father, "do you mean to defy me? I tell you I will have that stone! Give it up this instant!"

Anstey, *Vice Versa* ch. 2.

A Britannia metal tea-pot which would not pour properly.
Vachell, *Brothers* I ch. 2.

The nation had settled that it would not have conscription.

John (i. e. King John Lackland) believed that the Papal protection would enable him to rule as tyrannically as he *would*.

"Yes," twittered Maria, "Mr. Critchlow would come in to-night. Nothing would do but he must come in to-night."

Bennett, *Old W. Tale* IV ch. 2 § 2 p. 463.

Will has ordinary stress in the traditional phrase *Truth will out*; in imitation of this we also find others, like the following, all without a plain stem.

The tendency to be "smart" is kept under restraint, though epigrams will occasionally out.

Millar, *Mid-eighteenth Century* p. 36.

I tremble here at what I am going to say in this company of Elizabethan scholars, but my conviction will out.

G. Murray, Essays III 25.

Nay, his wickedness will out even in his contents table.

Times Lit. 15/10, 14.

One of the authors is French and the other English; and in war race-characteristics, like murder (and other "atrocities"), will out.

ib. 27/4, 16.

See 722 f.

716. *Will* with ordinary stress is used in interrogative sentences to ask after the will of the person spoken to.

The will may be positive (*wish*) or negative (*absence of objections*).

Will you have another cup of tea?

"Will you let me see your face?" asked the lawyer.
Stevenson, Dr. Jekyll.

"What shall we do to amuse ourselves?"

"Will you sing one of your German songs?"

"I'll go upstairs and get my music."

Sweet, Element. no. 63.

717. Weak-stressed *will* can also express an intention, both in declarative sentences, in the first person (*a*), and in interrogative sentences in the second person (*b*). In the former case the auxiliary often loses its initial sound, becoming [aɪəl, wɪəl] *I'll, we'll*.

a. I will tell you presently what I have heard.

We'll begin soon, won't we?

But I will not weary you with more of my experiences that day and the next. Wells, Country p. 164.

"I'll be very cold with him," she¹⁾ decided. But her coldness was tempered by sweetness, and if Mr. Vibart had ever tasted a really good ice-cream, he might have-

1) i. e. Jasmine.

compared Jasmine with one when she said good-bye to him on the Spaborough platform.

Mackenzie, Rich Relatives ch. 1 p. 33.

b. When will you be seeing your brother next? — Oh, some time in the next few days, I expect.

Collinson, Spoken English p. 28.

718. In negative sentences with *not*, *will* always has some stress (*a*). In other negative sentences it may be weak (*b*).

a. Nothing can be done," returned Lanyon. "Ask himself."

"He will not see me," said the lawyer.

Stevenson, Dr. Jekyll p. 57.

b. The Entente demands too much and the Central Powers will concede too little.

719. The preterite *would*, without strong stress, is used in the same meaning as a past tense (*a*) and as a modal preterite (*b*).

a. At first some of the surgeons would have nothing to say to her, and, though she was welcomed by others, the majority were hostile and suspicious.

Strachey, Eminent Victorians p. 132.

He never did much work, and the garden was in a shocking state of neglect, but he told delightful stories. To-day, however, he was in a bad temper and would pay no attention to Peter at all, and so Peter left him and went out into the high road.

Walpole, Fort. I ch. 3 § 2 p. 30.

b. I would exhort all students and intelligent readers to make more use of reference-books.

Baker, Uses of Libraries p. 25.

I would not for a moment desire to breed a feeling of security and complacency at home.

Times W. 5/4, 18.

We would show you how to use books as tools and libraries as workshops. Baker, Uses of Libr. p. 5.

The very portraits on the walls, especially the full-length ones, seemed to look down with interest at the proceedings, as if they would say: "Now this is something we know about." Cotes, Cinderella ch. 19 p. 209.

She would have prolonged the journey indefinitely, and yet she intensely desired the jail, whatever terrors it might hold for her. Bennett, These Twain II ch. 15.

The sight of the bloody work was too much for the Graeme, who, now that he saw his enemy bleeding at his feet, would have held back (viz. if he could have done so).

720. Strong-stressed *will* and *would* are found modally in concessive clauses opening with the plain stem; see 188 f.

Say what I will (would) to the contrary, he tells (told) the story everywhere.

We look forward to seeing far greater liberty of thought, and possibly greater freedom in the choice of form; but form, vary how it will, must still be dramatic form.

Academy, 8/7, 1905.

721. Weak-stressed *would* is also used modally in clauses subordinate to *to wish*, to express a wish that is unlikely to be fulfilled.

I wish Sam would carry his news to other houses than mine. Hardy, Native III ch. 3.

An artist wishes that when discussing aesthetics philosophers would argue with examples rather than phrases.

Times Lit. 23/8, 18.

He stood awkwardly looking at the purple vases and wishing that something would happen.

Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 12 p. 143.

As the examples show, the wish may refer to occurrences as well as to actions. *Would* is not used when the wish concerns a state, as is shown by the following sentence.

O how I wish I was sure of never loving you —.
Hardy, Native III ch. 5 p. 255.

Nor is *would* used when there is a preterite of another auxiliary.

Peter, of course, did not know these things, because it was very dark, but he wished he had not come.

Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 12 p. 140.

In the following sentence the use of *would* with *to be* might seem to contradict the statements made, but we must look upon *to be so ready to think* as a single group referring to an action.

I wish people wouldn't be so ready to think that there is no progress without uniformity.

Hardy, Native III ch. 5 p. 254.

722. *Will* (*a*) and the past tense *would* (*b*) are used to express what is generally or repeatedly seen or done. In this meaning *would* is used in all persons; but the present tense *will* is not used in the first person singular.

a. In his most scholarly moment, in the Preface to the *Dictionary*, he (Samuel Johnson) will throw out such a remark as . . . Bailey, Johnson, p. 30.

He is an Irishman as well as a ready writer on literature. Ireland, and politics of one sort or another, will keep breaking in. Times Lit. 21/6, 18.

He was a man between fifty and sixty years of age, with grey hair, rather short, and somewhat corpulent, but still gifted with that amount of personal comeliness which comfortable position and the respect of others will generally seem to give.

Trollope, Last Chron. ch. 1 p. 3.

Yet several other species come to the end of their vocal season quite as early, or but little later. If it be an extremely abundant species, as in the case of the willow-wren, we will have a score or fifty sing for every nightingale. Hudson, Hampshire Days ch. 5 p. 89.

b. Of Bosinney himself Baines would speak warmly with a certain compassion.

Galsworthy, *Man of Property* ch. 8 p. 103.

I remember when we were boys, I would always be asking my tutor for a holiday, which I would pass very likely swinging on a gate, or making ducks and drakes over the pond. Sweet.

I remember a holiday of mine being completely ruined one late autumn by our paying attention to the weather report of the local newspaper. "Heavy showers, with thunderstorms, may be expected to-day," it would say on Monday, and so we would give up our picnic, and stop indoors all day, waiting for the rain. And people would pass the house, going off in wagonettes and coaches as jolly and merry as could be, the sun shining out, and not a cloud to be seen.

Jerome, *Three Men in Boat*, Ch. V.

A certain change had come over the great and powerful Marquis since we last saw him. He looked thinner and less stern and cold; at times, in the dimly lighted room, he would sigh heavily and, when the gout was not too rampant, would get up from his chair and pace the room. Garvice, p. 24.

Sometimes I would see Gerald in the Café Royal. I would be dining, with Hilary maybe, and in the distance, cut as with a sharp knife in the tapestry of smoke and grubby faces, would be Gerald...

Arlen, *Green Hat* ch. 2 § 2 p. 54.

Many examples, both of *will* and *would* in Salzman, *English Life in the Middle Ages* p. 37, 54, etc.

723. The relation of *will* and *would* expressing the iterative aspect to the other meanings of *will* is not quite clear. It might be a development of its use to form the future; this is also suggested by the comparison of French, where the future is used in this function (Brunot *La Pensée et la Langue* p. 456). Note, however, that the first person takes *would* (not *should*).

A special case of this meaning of *will* is its use to express an action or state that follows from the nature of the subject. See 722.

The simple fact is that Montenegro, being a peasant state, will not produce millionaires. That is why it will produce soldiers. *Everyman, 20/12, 12.*

This last use would seem to suggest that iterative *will* is a special case of *will* expressing volition. Perhaps both meanings of *will* have contributed to the growth of iterative *will*. In living English, however, iterative *will* is not clearly connected with either of the other uses. See 715.

724. The use of *will* expressing volition and the iterative aspect have been treated in the preceding sections. The last use that must now be dealt with is probably the most important of all: its use to express an action, etc. at a future time, and the uses that must be considered a development and special case of the 'future' use.

There is much variety between the different parts of the English-speaking world with respect to this use of *will*, consequently also, though in a lesser degree, of *shall*. In the following sections an attempt will be made to describe polite Southern English usage.

725. Weak-stressed *will*, often reduced to syllabic *l*, is used to express a verbal idea in a future time in the second and third persons. The accompanying plain stem may be simple or complex, as usual.

I hope you will both be able to come.

You won't be in time if you wait any longer.

The troops, broken and disorganised, have fallen back in the direction of Constantinople, where the last scene in the terrible tragedy of blood and war will be enacted.

Everyman, 8/11, 12.

We hope that a further advance towards agreement

will be made at to-day's adjourned meeting, but the difficulties to be overcome are serious.

The Mail, 22/9, 1920.

I suppose Miss Kirkpatrick will have returned from France before then. Gaskell, Wives II ch. 1.

It is said that the Great Powers have since recognised their mistake in the matter, and perhaps by the time these lines appear they will have formally conceded a larger representation. New Statesman 1/2, 1919.

The object of the essay is, first, to face these difficulties...; and, in the second place, to communicate to the English reader... Whether the attempt succeed or fail, some important general questions of literary doctrine will have been discussed; and, in addition, at least an effort will have been made to vindicate a great reputation.

Lytton Strachey, Books and Char. p. 5 f.

726. *Will* is also used in both the second and third persons in interrogative sentences. In the second person, however, the idea of intention is often implied. *Will* is naturally used in enclitic questions, for in this case it only repeats *you will*; see 425 ff.

How long will you stay?

Collinson, Spoken English p. 10.

How long will you be staying?¹⁾ ib. p. 10.

Will you be at home at tea-time to-morrow?

Pinero, Iris, I.

Will you want winter things?

Wells, Britling II ch. 4 § 7 p. 313.

"But was it that Kensington Gardens business that did the job?" asked Sally... "Did the job" repeats the bride on her honeymoon with some indignation. "Sally dear, when will you learn to be more refined in your speech?"...

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 30 p. 319.

727. When we find *will* in the first person in declarative

1) The author suggests the alternative *shall* as an equivalent.

sentences there is often an idea of intention implied (*a*). This is not necessarily so, however, and least of all when the verb does not express a voluntary action (*b*).

a. I'll try what I can do for you.

Hullo, Sim! My landlady's out; I'll chuck down the latchkey; catch; caught, sir! Let yourself in, Sim, and come straight up, first floor.

Hutchinson, *One Increasing Purpose* I ch. 21 p. 131.

b. "Matilda, Matilda. Come back to me . . ."

"I can't come back, Mother. I'll be late for my lesson."

K. Mansfield, *Bliss* p. 138.

728. We find *will* in the second person to express a command. The speaker takes obedience for granted so that he looks upon the action as certain to take place. It is clearly a special use of future *will*.

You will see that due precautions are taken.

Johnson will repeat to me to-morrow morning before breakfast, without book, and from the Greek Testament, the first chapter of the Epistle of Saint Paul to the Ephesians.

Dickens.

Never mention this again for your own sake — you will stay here until I wish you to go.

Walpole, *Fort. I* ch. 9 § 4 p. 109.

729. *Would* is used as a modal preterite in the main clause of a hypothetical statement, both in declarative (*a*) and interrogative (*b*) sentences, in the second and third persons. Its use in the first person seems to be unusual in Southern British English (*c*).

a. You would not do it if you knew how much it hurts me.

I wonder what you would do if you were in my place.

b. Would you have been in time if you had taken the shorter route?

c. In the conduct of political affairs the public have short memories, or we would not so often fight over again the old controversies. Pilot 16/4, 04, p. 352/2.

Whoever is to blame will have to leave the Abbey. His lordship never overlooks or forgives. Even I, who have been here since before you were born, would have to go if I caused such an uproar as this.

Garvice, Staunch p. 9.

The condition of a hypothetical statement is not always expressed. This leads to the use of *would* to express something in a modest way. As *should* is also used in this way the use is best treated in the sections on *Shall and Will Compared*, in 731 ff.

730. We sometimes find *will* (not *would*) as a verb of full meaning, with *willed* as a preterite and participle. It may seem that we should have treated this as the fundamental meaning, just as has been done in the chapter on *to have* and *to be*. But in reality the use of *will* as an independent verb is restricted to literary English, or even to the technical English of experts in psychological research. It is not generally used by English speakers, and has had no influence on the generally current meanings of *will* described above.

We can distinguish *will* as a transitive verb (*a*), and as a verb construed with a subordinate clause (*b*). The technical use referred to may also be illustrated (*c*).

a. As we will the end, we must will the means.

Times W. 18/1, 18.

b. Constance, alone, could find nothing to do. She had willed that the walls should be built, and they had been built. Bennett, Old W. Tale II ch. 7 § 3.

The Fates have so willed that the present editor is able to include poems by Robert Browning...

Leonard, A Book of Light Verse p. V.

Ludwig's (of Bavaria) main interests were artistic, but the irony of fate willed it that he should play an important part in German politics. Athenaeum.

c. When I will to move my arm and the movement takes place, I am distinctly conscious that the volition was the movement's cause.

Strong, Why the Mind has a Body.

Miss Muriel, will you look at the needle, and see if
you can will me? Punch 28/2, 1906.

Shall and Will Compared

Future Shall and Will 731. The use of *shall* and *will* to express the future has been stated in the preceding sections. From these it follows that *shall* is exclusively used in interrogative sentences in the first person: *shall I, shall we?* On the other hand, *will* is the only form that can be used in declarative sentences for the second and third persons: *you will, he, she, it, they will*; also in interrogative sentences in the third person: *will he, she, it, they?*

In other cases the two verbs may be said to compete: we find both *I shall*, *I will*, *I'll*, and the same for *we*; also both *shall you* and *will you*¹⁾.

From these statements it seems evident that *shall* has a much weaker hold on the expression of the future than *will*, and if it were permissible for a grammarian to foretell the future it would seem difficult to avoid the prediction that *shall* will finally disappear. This would account for the concurrent uses, and agree with the observation that

1) It should be clearly understood that the statements refer to *future* *shall* and *will* only. There is nothing contrary to the statements in the sections on *shall* and on *will* in the following example.

If you receive this, we shall be gone together; I will write to you from wherever we pitch our tent, and, of course, I shall write to Cicely.

Galsworthy, Dark Flower II ch. 19 p. 198.

will you seems to be on the increase. The only case when *will* seems entirely impossible is its use as an alternative of *shall I*.

732. The statements about the use of *shall* and *will* to express the future must be completed by a treatment of indirect (reported) style, and repetition of a speaker's words.

In indirect style *shall (should)* is often used in the third person to report *I shall (should)*.

A well-known teacher of elocution tells me that she thinks she shall be compelled to leave off teaching in girls' schools. Miss L. Soames, *Phonetics*.

Early on the following morning Mr. Slope was summoned to the bishop's dressing-room, and went there fully expecting that he should find his lordship very indignant. Trollope, *Barchester*.

He had chafed at every stoppage, fumed at every delay, and been able to think of nothing but whether or no he should catch the train.

Montgomery, *Misunderstood*, ch. XIII.

They foresaw that it could not be long before they should be obliged to submit.

Shorthouse, *Inglesant* ch. 12 p. 129.

From the moment the Jesuit began to speak, Inglesant knew that he should go¹⁾. ib. ch. 20 p. 206.

George said he should be all right, and would²⁾ rather like it, but he would advise Harris and me not to think of it, as he felt sure we should both be ill.

Jerome, *Three Men in a Boat* ch. 1.

It seemed to her as if she should meet Osborne and hear it all explained. Gaskell, *Wives* III p. 166.

He said he should come again about half-past-five.
Bennett, *Old W. Tale* IV ch. 3 § 2.

1) Observe that *should* refers the action to Inglesant, not the Jesuit.

2) See 741 b.

733. For a similar reason *will* and *would* are used in the first person because they report *you will* (*would*).

"Let me be promised," she seemed to say, "that I will never have any trouble or sorrow with my son and I will love him devotedly." Walpole, Fort. III ch. 8. p. 319.

I just wanted to see you, Joan. I'm told I'll be most useful as a gunner because of my mathematics.

Wells, Joan and Peter ch. 13 § 3.

When I came to myself Doctor C. was saying I would have to sleep there that night.

Hall Caine, The Woman.

It was a small and harmless joke, but it turned on the Firm, and dire were the consequences thereof. The loftily gracious Mr. McBlacksmith froze suddenly... Jokes were permissible, desirable at times; there were jokes even in the immortal works published by McBlacksmith — but a joke at the expense of the Firm, *I would understand* —

I understood, and I have cultivated gravity ever since.

Pilot 21/5, 1904.

In the following case we have essentially the same case; the servant is thinking of the desired testimony 'You will do'.

"Please, ma'am," said the new parlourmaid, "will I do?"

Jerome, Paul Kelver ch. 1 p. 130.

734. We often find *would* in the first person (*a*) in reporting a sentence in which *will* occurred in the subordinate clause (a doubly reported future as it were). *Would* is also the usual (or exclusive) form in the third person, even when the clauses are the same (*b*).

a. Lady Lippington said at once that she hoped we wouldn't mind its not being "a function."

Cotes, Cinderella ch. 8 p. 35.

He told me that he thought I would suit him very well.

Conrad, Chance II, 69.

b. And Constance had said that she supposed she

would have to manage with a charwoman until Rose's advent. Bennett, Old W. Tale IV ch. 4 § 6.

735. Essentially identical with the use of *shall* and *will* in reported style is the repetition of the words of a speaker.

"We'll come and watch you," said Henry.

"Oh no, you won't. At least *you* won't; you're such a critic. Anna can if she likes."

(Roorda, Dutch and English Compared no. 793).

In appended questions *shall* and *will* are not necessarily repeated; they are often used according to the general rules that have been stated, *we will* in the main clause being followed by *shall we*, etc.; for examples see 425 ff. But repetition in the same form will be found illustrated in 429 c (first and last quotation).

Present and Future **736.** It has been shown (160 f.) that future time is expressed by the present tense as well as by the groups with *shall* and *will*. The group-future is necessary in adverb clauses when the verbal idea is not dependent upon that of the main clause; this may be illustrated by the following example.

Tobacco, it is said, is gradually being ousted by sweets. We fancy, however, that it will be some little time before it *will be* a common sight to see men about town walking down Pall Mall with a sugar stick in the mouth instead of a cigarette. Punch 15/9, 1909 p. 181.

When the time is sufficiently indicated the present as well as the future may be used in main clauses. The difference may be defined to be one of style: the present is more colloquial. The reason for this seems to be that in using the present tense the speaker does not take the trouble to realize the future time as clearly distinct from the present time. This explains why the present tense is by no means always possible even though the future time is clearly indicated (see 163 ff.).

**Derived Meanings
of the Group-future**

737. The use of *shall* and *will* for the future cannot be strictly separated from other meanings, such as the will of the speaker (threat, promise, determination, etc.), as has been shown in dealing with the two verbs as auxiliaries of the future. All these special functions are developments of the future use, and not connected with the original or fundamental meanings of *shall* as expressing the determination of the speaker, and of *will* as expressing the will of the grammatical subject of the sentence.

The developments of the future use that concern either *shall* or *will* have been dealt with in the sections on these verbs. There is one case, however, that concerns the two verbs equally; this must now be treated.

Inferential Future **738.** *Shall* (*a*) and *will* (*b*) as parts of a group-future with a plain stem, either simple or complex, are used to express an inference regarded as probable.

a. The missionary was not indeed unknown even in early times; but we shall probably be right in saying that when the system was most powerful, organization of missions was far more commonly in the interest of some sect within Islam than in the interest of Islam itself.

Margoliouth, Mohammedanism p. 9.

We shall all agree with his conclusion that the first possesses a real educational value and the second does not.

Firth, in History vol. 4 p. 79.

b. As you will already be aware, Germany has refused Sir Edward Grey's proposal of a four-Power Conference.

Times W. 31/7, 14.

With that he blew out his candle, put on a greatcoat and set forth in the direction of Cavendish Square, that citadel of medicine, where his friend, the great Dr. Lanyon, had his house and received his crowding patients. "If anyone knows, it will be Lanyon," he had thought.

Stevenson, Dr. Jekyll p. 17.

In speaking to you of Jane Austen, I must assume, not only that you are familiar with her novels, but that, like myself, you belong to the faithful... And if you do, you will not wish me to add another to the estimates of Jane Austen's genius; nor, on the other hand, will you ask me whether I have anything new to say.'

A. C. Bradley in Essays II p. 7.

Second books are the most surely foredoomed creatures in all creation — and there are many excellent reasons for this. They will assuredly disappoint the expectation of those who enjoyed the first work, and the author will, in all probability, have been tempted by his earlier success to try his wings further than they are, as yet, able to carry him.

Walpole, Fort. III ch. 8 p. 315.

739. In all the quotations of the preceding sections the idea of inference is the most important, but the idea of futurity is not gone. The use of the group-future to express an inference that refers exclusively to the present time is occasionally found in books, but it is contrary to standard Southern usage¹⁾.

Tibby opened the door to him and looked him up and down.

"You'll be Mr. Folyat," she said.

"That is my name."

Cannan, Round the Corner, p. 146.

"You'll be a college man, sir?" asked old Lawrie.
"Dublin," said Francis.

ib. p. 146. (both speakers are Scottish).

It'll be in the walnut wing.

Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 5 p. 51 (a servant speaks).

At Okehampton station a brisk young-looking man

1) Sweet calls it Scotch; it occurs in southern English dialects as well, as is shown by the quotation from Phillpotts. The first quotation in 737 b may seem to refer to the present time; but it is really future: as you *will be* aware when what I am writing *now* is read by you.

with a clean-shaved face appeared before Elisabeth.
 "You'll be Miss Densham, I reckon," he said slowly.
 "I know most of the people on the platform, but you're
 strange. Be you for South Zeal?"

Phillpotts, *Beacon* I ch. 2 p. 13.

"Will you come into the parlour and rest your leg?
 You'll be from college, perhaps?"

"We were, but we've gone down now."

Galsworthy, *Caravan* p. 339. (The question is asked
 by a Welshwoman married to a Devonshire farmer).

740. The difference between the quotations in 738 and 739 is very slight, but it is real to speakers of Standard Southern English; all the more real because the distinction is too fine to be a product of school.

Sometimes the construction seems to be genuine Southern English, and perfectly current in Standard speech, although the idea of futurity cannot be applied to it in a natural manner. This suggests that the above account, if true, is not the whole truth. The following cases, both with a complex stem, seem to require a different explanation.

And pray how did you feel during my absence? You will have missed me very much. —

It will have cost a good deal, I suppose.

The following sentences, on the other hand, suggested or quoted by van der Gaaf as specimens of real Southern English (*Engl. Studien* 62 p. 403), hardly seem to be correct Southern English to the present author.

What time will it be, d'you think?

How old should you say that neighbour will be?
 Morris, *News from Nowhere*.

741. The use of *should* and *would* in hypothetical statements leads to a seemingly very different use. When the condition is not expressed the group comes to denote a statement in a modest

Should and Would KRUISINGA, Handbook II. *Accidence and Syntax*. 1.

way (*a*). In this case we often find *would* in the first person, especially in combination with *like* as the plain stem (*b*).

a. I should like to go for a nice walk.

Mr. O'Connor follows 'Murray' in saying that it is in winter the highest and the coldest garrison town in France: but we should have thought¹⁾ that Briançon, though it is not so high, would run it close in the matter of cold.

Athenaeum.

Would you mind, mamma, sleeping with me to-night?
Baring-Gould, in Swaen I p. 5.

It looks as though women in France would have the vote before long. Spectator 14/1, 1928.

We are now well in December, and the Christmas book trade is in full swing. I have been inspecting the publishers' lists, and should say that the output of this class of literature is not only larger but of finer quality than ever.

Everyman.

b. I would like to quote one more example. ib.

742. The same construction may also come to express probability; in this case *would* is used only, because it is restricted to the second and third person, see 700 and 738 f.

After this it would seem that they turned in for the night. Wells, Country of the Blind, p. 63.

King Edward VII permitted himself, or would appear to have permitted himself, to take that view of his office.

Academy.

At the time he saw me first I was a youngster of 12 or so. That would be in the year 1878.

A Church like this, conscious of its own vigour, would naturally resent a claim of foreign authority which treated it as barbarous... This is exactly what happened.

Wakeman, Introd. p. 17.

1) i. e. if we had not read a different opinion in this book.

That further the young Shakespeare would have very soon read all the plays and romances he could lay his hands upon, and learned all he could of the working of the theatre, may be regarded as certain.

Seccombe and Allen, *Shakespeare II* 61.

It is evident that the Anglo-Saxons coming into a new country must have adopted in many cases the native names for places, and even for articles of use and furniture which were not familiar to them at home and for which they had no specially proper expression; it is also evident that terms of domestic life would be most easily introduced by the persons, etc.

Stubbs, *Lect. Early Engl. Hist.* p. 227.

"He never told you," cried Mr. Hyde, with a flush of anger. "I did not think you would have lied."

Stevenson, *Dr. Jekyll*, p. 25.

Can, Will, Used

743. *Can* and *will*, expressing what is repeatedly seen, can be used both in the present and the preterite; *used* always in the preterite only, in the function of a past tense.

The present of *can* and *will* in this function is the neutral present, not referring to any definite time. The grammatical difference between these two is, in the first place, that *can* is found in all persons, *will* in the third chiefly.

* **744.** The general difference in meaning between *can* and *will* is that *can* suggests that the phenomenon proceeds from the nature of the subject, *will* from the personal will or desire of the subject. *Can* lays more stress on the *occasional* nature of the phenomenon, *will* on its *regularity*.

Another important difference between the two auxiliaries is that *can* refers to a single occurrence or a number of occurrences as specimens of a type, *will* and *used* refer

to them collectively. This is probably connected with the fact that *can* expresses the result of psychological analysis, *will* the result of observation.

All married women know how trying girls can be.

Oh, then, he could be cruel and I thought wicked! he would exultantly snatch the screen from poor shrinking wretches. Brontë, Villette ch. 29.

Boys will be boys, and girls will be girls for the matter of that.

Every one who has studied the matter knows that *tea* and *meat* were once sounded¹⁾ in England as they now are by the Irish peasant ... The Irishman never says "praste" for *priest*, "greece" for *grace*, still less "Profissor," or "thafe," or "bist," or "wake" (week), though he will say "wake" for *weak*. Athenaeum 1/2, 13.

Compare also the quotation from Meredith in 656 b.

745. *Would* and *used* are not identical in meaning. *Would* suggests a picture of the past; it implies personal interest, which is a consequence of its inherent meaning. *Used* is also employed to contrast the past with the present, and does not necessarily express repetition.

In the following quotations *would* and *used* could not change places. It would also be impossible in the examples of 649.

Catastrophe of any kind overwhelmed him at first, and then his vitality, his recuperative qualities, would come to the rescue. Vachell, Quinneys' p. 225.

The earliest inhabitants of our island had paid little attention to agriculture. They lived mainly by hunting, and wandered about the country, settling down for a time where game was plentiful and the conditions of life bearable. In such a place they would pitch the wigwam huts required to shelter their family group, . . . ; a portion of the surrounding soil would be broken up, . . . etc.

Salzman, English Life in the Middle Ages, p. 37.

1) i. e. pronounced.

"Doesn't he like you?"

"He used to like me," she answered mournfully.

"... You say that James used to like you. Why has he cooled off, hey?" ib. p. 253.

"You used to love me."

"Used?"

ib. p. 268.

It was a well-remembered road... He would walk down the same rusty path, and his heart would quicken as it used to quicken at the thought of seeing Dolly.

Wells, Joan and Peter ch. 9 § 11.

746. *Used*, when expressing repetition, is very nearly related in meaning to *would*, so that both are often used in the same sentence.

Sometimes he used to tell us of his expeditions through the woods and fields round his home, and how he explored the solitary brooks and ponds; and then he would describe the curious animals and birds he saw.

Sweet, Spoken English p. 50.

But all through the sermon, to which she never gave the slightest attention, her mind would feel mute and stilled, and she used to come out of church silent and preoccupied, returning unwillingly to the commonplaces of life.

Wells, Harman ch. 4 § 2 p. 81.

But to return to the house. There was quite a happy family at that spot by the back door where the hornets were. A numerous family of shrews were reared, and the young, when they began exploring the world, used to creep over the white stone by the threshold. The girls would pick them up to feel their soft mole-like fur: the young shrew is a gentle creature and does not attempt to bite.

Hudson, Hampshire Days ch. 1 p. 10.

(*Would* occurs *passim* in this book, not *used to*).

In these sentences *used to* might be replaced by *would*, but it would hardly be correct to substitute *used to* for the *would* of the text. It should be understood that the substitution, if possible, always modifies the meaning of the sentence.

747. It may be of some use to consider some ways of expressing repetition in the past¹⁾:

1. He went on saying.
2. He kept saying.
3. He would say.
4. He used to say.
5. He always said.
6. He was always saying.

As to no 1 compare 84, 311 ff; the aspect may be called terminative. The second and third form seem both to express the iterative aspect, the difference being that *keep* suggests hardly any interruption, whereas there is no such restriction in the case of *would*. For the fourth, see 745. The fifth does not seem to have such a definite meaning; it could often be used as an alternative of both 3 and 4. On the sixth, compare the sections on the progressive.

Retrospect on the Auxiliaries

748. The meaning of the term ‘auxiliary’ has been explained in the introductory sections to this chapter (417—420). Now that the uses of the various auxiliaries have been fully dealt with, as far as this seems advisable, some details being best left to the dictionary, the time seems to have come to answer the question how we can classify the auxiliaries most satisfactorily. Such a classification must help to show what various auxiliaries have in common.

The word auxiliary has been explained as referring to verbs that form semantically subordinate parts of verbal groups. There are two verbs, however, that have or

1) Note that 2, 3, 5, and 6 occur also in the present. The first might perhaps occur in the historic present. On the expression of repetition in general, see the chapter on *Meaning* in vol. 3.

may have no independent meaning, although they are used with non-verbal elements: *to be* and *to have*. When *to be* is used without any meaning in this way, as in *the writing is very clear*, it is a link-verb, traditionally called a *copula*; this term may be retained, as long as nothing is implied of the ideas that led to its introduction. But it must be remembered that *to have* is frequently used in a perfectly similar way: *to have a cold*, *to have a wash*, *to have a squint*, etc.¹⁾. As this peculiarity of *have* and *be* cannot be separated from their auxiliary functions, it is clear that they may be considered a class by themselves.

But *to have* and *to be* share with *to do* the quality of being used as verbs of full meaning as well. This may also be said of *to dare*, and *to need*. But the latter group of verbs differs from the first three in a formal way: they do not use the form in *z* when members of a verbal group. *To let*, though showing no formal peculiarities, has a special word-order which is clearly the result of its subordinate position in the verbal groups; it may, therefore, be classified with the other two.

All the auxiliaries treated in this section until now have a full conjugational system, as far as modern English can be said to possess such a system at all. The preterites *ought* and *used*, though conveying a clear meaning and being consequently somewhat independent members of the groups in which they occur, are used in one single form only. With regard to *used*, it is undoubtedly a past tense; but the function of *ought* is less definite: it occurs as a present tense and as a modal preterite (not as a past tense, however). They resemble full verbs in that they have an independent meaning, as well as in the use of a stem with *to*.

All the other auxiliaries: *can*, *may*, *must*, *shall*, and *will*,

1) Cf. Mrs. Vechtman-Veth's *Syntax of Living English* pp. 126 f.

share one peculiarity: they are exclusively used with a plain stem. This is not an accident, for the plain stem is practically the predicative verb in such groups, the auxiliary serving to modify or specify the meaning of the stem. It is not chance, or historical accident either, that these verbs have no other form than a stem used as a present only, and a preterite. This restriction is clearly the result of the meaning of the auxiliaries, as has been pointed out when dealing with each of them. It is not chance either that the preterites of some are chiefly, or exclusively, used as modal preterites, not as past tenses¹⁾. The same applies to the use of these preterites in main clauses, whereas the preterites of other verbs can be so used in subordinate clauses only.

749. One point has not been mentioned in the preceding section: the weak stress of many of the auxiliaries, and the peculiar forms to which this has sometimes led. There is no doubt that the weak stress of the auxiliaries is connected with their semantically subordinate position. But they share this with other verbs: thus in groups like *to go and see*, or *to go see*, the first element is undoubtedly weaker stressed on account of its function in the group. The transcriptions in Sweet's *Primer of Spoken English*, and in his *Elementarbuch*, will supply many examples, from which a couple may be mentioned as specimens.

sōu īj :sed 'priti bij, :wil ju :kam ən plei wið mij?'
Primer p. 49.

nou, əi masnt bij aidl: əi məs :gou ən plau, əe ðə
wount bij -enī kən tə :meik bred öv. ib.

1) The use of these preterites as past tenses in indirect style is quite independent of this, and has consequently been treated in the third volume, in the sections on *Concord*.

SUMMARY

750. The completion of the first volume of this syntax calls for some concluding remarks. It is worth notice in the first place that a whole volume is devoted to the verb, one more to all the other parts of speech together. This arrangement is not due to the arbitrary will of the writer of an English grammar but to the character of the language whose structure he has to describe. The English sentence is distinctly verbal; it is verbal in form even when both subject and predicate are nominal in their meaning.

What distinguishes the English verb from that of most other Indo-Germanic languages is the almost complete absence of special forms for the predicative use. Apart from the form in [(i)z, s] there is not a single exclusively predicative form, the stem or the form with the suffix [(i)d, t] being used in a non-predicative as well as in a predicative function; in all other cases a verbal group is used. It is hardly possible, consequently, to speak of a 'system' of conjugation in English, unless we include all the groups which the verb can enter into. If we do the latter we cannot avoid enumerating the mixed noun-and-verb groups, such as the object with stem (plain or with *to*) and the object-with-ing, as well as the purely verbal groups. The usual practice of enumerating those groups only that have a special name (such as the perfect, or the passive) is nothing but an attempt to assimilate the English verb to the Latin or Greek verb: the arrangement has the effect of hiding the great differences between the English and the older Indo-Germanic verbal system.

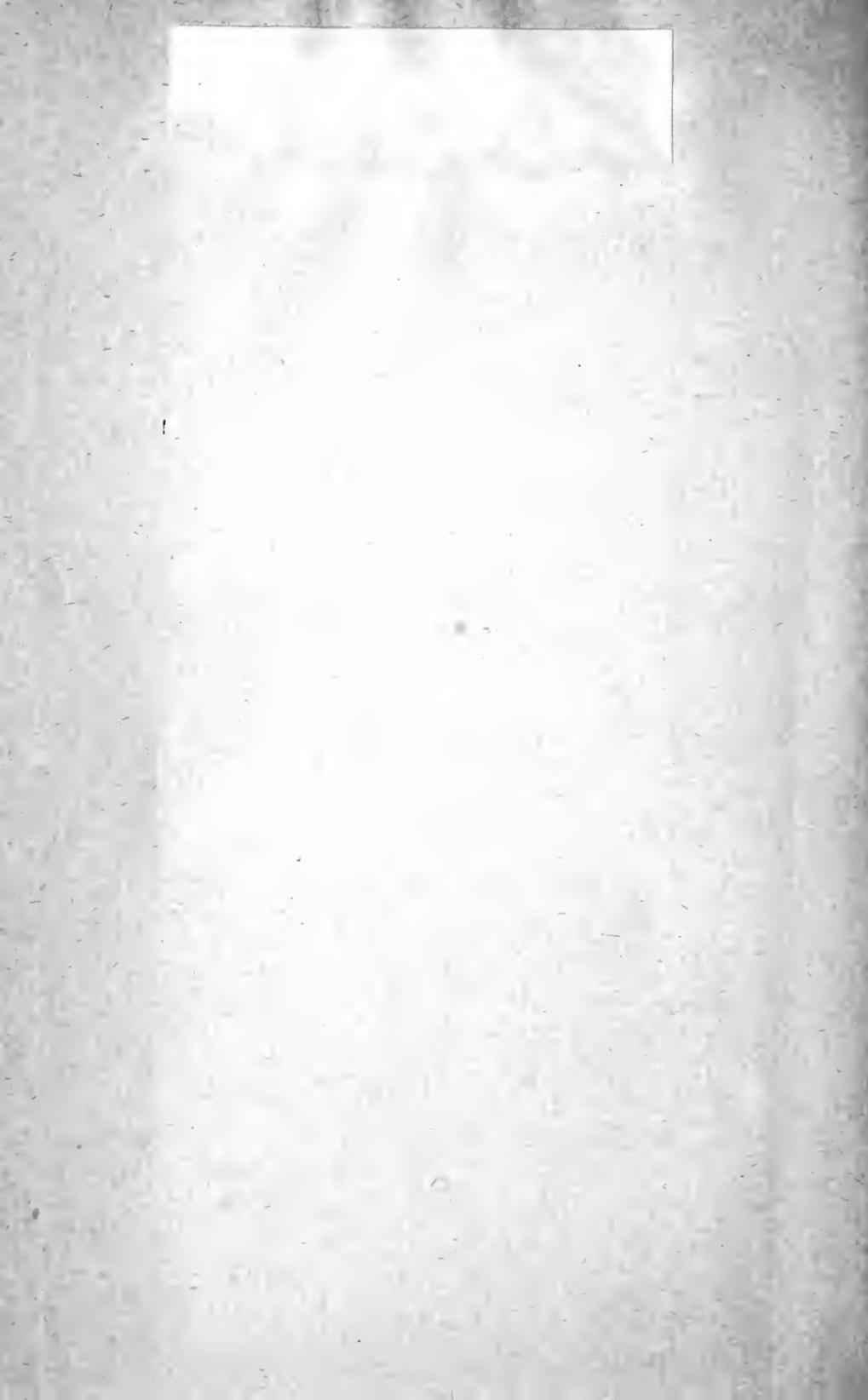
If we are to characterize the verb in living English, its most important peculiarities seem to be the absence of any division of forms into predicative and non-predicative classes, and the scarcity of distinctive forms with a definite function, as well as the extensive use of the unchanged stem.

Although there is little of a verbal conjugation in living English, it should be remembered that the few distinctive forms that do exist occur of practically all verbs, if we consider the irregular forms, which in spite of their importance are, after all, a small minority, as equivalents of the regular or living forms. If verbs do not form a complete conjugation, as the auxiliaries, it is the effect of their syntactic uses and their meanings, not of their morphological form. What there is of a system of conjugation may be tabulated in the following way; the verb *to be* is included, in spite of its isolated character, because its frequency makes it so important that a table of verbal forms without it would be misleading.

Conjugation of the Verb

Preterite	{	called	{	came,	saw	{	was,	were
Participle				come,	seen		been	
Ing		calling		coming,	seeing		being	
Present	{	calls	{	comes,	sees	is		
3 rd p.s.								
Stem		call		come,	see	{	Pres. 1 p.s. am	
							— 2p. and pl. are	
Number of Forms			4		4	5		8





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